EGYPT OLD AND NEW

PERCY F. MARTIN

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EGYPT—OLD AND NEW

BY THE SAME AUTHOR

THROUGH FIVE REPUBLICS OF SOUTH AMERICA

MEXICO OF THE XX CENTURY

MEXICO'S TREASURE HOUSE

MAXIMILIAN IN MEXICO

PERU OF THE XX CENTURY

EL SALVADOR OF THE XX CENTURY

GREECE OF THE XX CENTURY

THE SUDAN IN EVOLUTION

ETC.

COLOSSI OF MEMNON AT DAYBREAK

(Frontispiece)

EGYPT—OLD & NEW

A POPULAR ACCOUNT OF THE LAND *of the* PHARAOHS *from the* TRAVELLER'S AND ECONOMIST'S POINT OF VIEW

WITH MANY ENGRAVINGS, NEARLY 50 COLOURED PLATES AND A MAP

BY

PERCY F. MARTIN, F.R.G.S.

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"Egypt is the most important country in the world"

NAPOLÉON BONAPARTE

IN arranging this volume certain references have been made, and are hereby gratefully acknowledged, to such works as Lord Cromer's *Modern Egypt;* Lord Milner's *England in Egypt;* Mr. Silva White's *The Expansion of Egypt;* Mr. Martin S. Brigg's *Through Egypt in War Time;* Dr. E. A. Wallis Budge's *The Nile;* Sir Sydney's Low *Egypt in Transition;* and Government Blue Books of recent date.

AUTHOR

July 1922.

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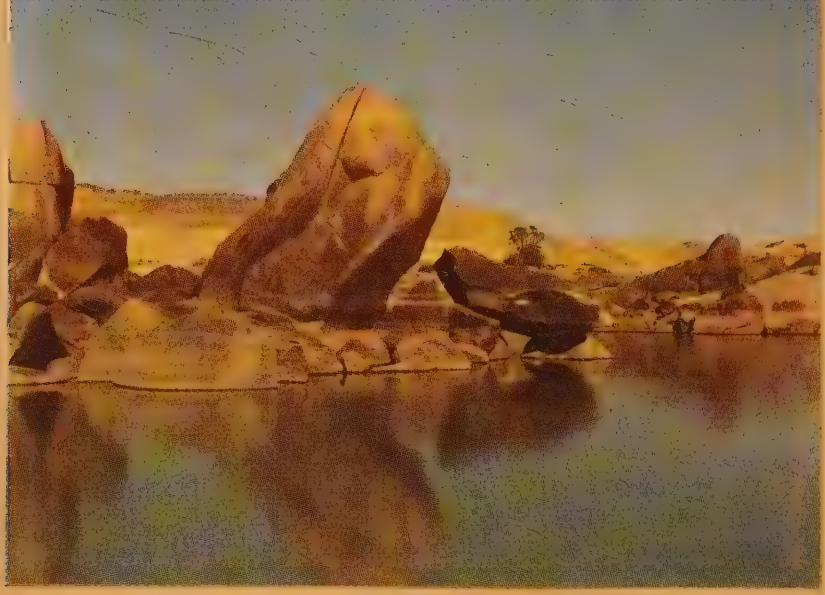


BETWEEN THE CATARACTS

DAYBREAK AT LUXOR

INTRODUCTION

The Nile—for ever new and old,
Among the living and the dead,
Its mighty, mystic stream has rolled.

Longfellow

THE current year marks the fortieth of consecutive British occupation in Egypt—and the last? It is not a little interesting to note how important in history, from Scriptural times, has proved the number "forty." The rains of the Flood fell for forty days; forty days expired before the Ark, once closed, was reopened; for forty days Moses was on the Mount, and for forty years the Israelites wandered in the wilderness; Elijah was fed by the ravens for forty days; Nineveh was granted forty days wherein to repent; while the Egyptians required forty days for the embalming of a body. Our Lord fasted for forty days, and forty days after His Resurrection He was seen. To the number forty, indeed, the ancients ascribed many strange things, while at a later period alchemists regarded that number of days as the charmed span when the Philosopher's Stone and Elixir of Life were to appear. The poet Byron visioned how—

The dark shades of forty *ages stood*
Like startled giants by Nile's famous flood.

Egypt—Old and New

Between 1882 and 1922 Egypt passed through a state of troubled transition under the control of an alien —but far from unfriendly—Power ; now she enters upon a new, and, let us hope, prosperous and peaceful period of sovereign independence. Encouraged by a wonderful history, rich in tradition and richer still in the teachings of Art, a history stretching back into the centuries ; peopled by a race still remarkable for its intelligence, industry and physical vigour, Egypt should speedily attain a position in the world's commerce and a place in its administrative councils to which, by both record and repute, she is entitled.

In the realisation of her national aspirations, Egypt will continue to count no friend more true, no onlooker more sympathetic, than Great Britain. There can, and need, be nothing inconsistent or distasteful in the upholding of essential British interests ; these essential interests are that our great Imperial communications passing through Egyptian territory shall not be jeopardised ; that interference by, or rivalry between, other foreign countries shall not be permitted ; that no policy in any way hostile to British interests shall be pursued. The Egyptians—fanatics and peace-disturbers excepted—must realise the good work that has been carried out upon their behalf by British officials during the past forty years ; they can but acknowledge that it has always been the honest purpose of British policy—even when apparently unsuitable or mistakenly applied—to help them to realise their ideal of independence, and not to stand in the way of its attainment. To them is now conceded the further privilege of having their integrity and independence guaranteed by the most powerful

maritime Power in the world, and assuredly no moment has ever been more favourable for placing the relations of Great Britain and Egypt on a permanently satisfactory and friendly basis.

The Great War, rich in consequences for the whole world, has wrought no greater marvel than this emancipation of Egypt. During its sixty centuries of history, no event recorded can have meant more, either for good or evil, for the people—always a docile race—than the enactment promulgated in the month of March last.[1] With it, it is true, was dissipated that spirit of continuity which had characterised British policy in Egypt during the past forty years, a policy initiated by Lord Dufferin in 1883 and maintained with but little variation by his several successors in office. Lord Kitchener, the first to show courage, went a certain distance in granting reforms; but Lord Allenby proceeded a very great deal further. Towards this end, years of strenuous agitation, conducted at times with a deplorable lack of decorum and decency, have given permanently and irrevocably—not meaely *quam diu se bene gesserit*—to the Egyptians that for which they had so ardently and unitedly striven.

There are pessimists who declare it unwise to place as yet too much confidence in the people, and who point warningly to conditions in Ireland as an awful illustration of the weakness of granting sovereign independence to a nation unable, either by education or experience, to rule itself according to modern principles. On the other hand, we have the authority of such sound and experienced Pro-Consuls as Lords Milner and Allenby

[1] 1922.

for the belief that, subject to certain safeguards for the special interests of Great Britain—such, for instance, as the maintenance of our Imperial communications and the protection of foreign rights—the Egyptians should be given a Government of their own, an administration not merely restored to what it was in theory before the British occupation, but one endowed with every power and privilege of a sovereign and independent State. The reform work of the last forty years is thought by these great authorities to warrant such a course, and they affect to believe it likely to be followed with a large measure of success. All timorous restrictions have, therefore, to be swept away, and anything likely to obscure the principle of Egyptian independence is to be negatived.

Old landmarks have already disappeared, or are disappearing ; changes introduced are destined to prove of a radical character. The most vital innovation has been the bestowal upon the Egyptians of the right of independent diplomatic and consular representation. Lord Curzon "vowing that he would ne'er consent," consented to this imperative and unanimous demand for diplomatic status. Without, it was clear that no settlement with the Egyptians could ever be brought about ; Sultan, princes, ministers, officials high and low, and subjects of all degrees and classes were one on this point. There must be, as before, an independent Egyptian Minister for Foreign Affairs, a supreme Egyptian Foreign Office and foreign representatives.

The expression of a fear that the presence of Egyptian diplomatists, even in but a few European capitals, and of foreign diplomats in Cairo, might afford opportunities for intrigue against Great Britain was met by the fervid

assurance that " the Egyptians would be the last to favour intrigues which might give other foreign nations the opportunity of interfering in their country," and that " the greatest safeguard which could be granted against such machinations was the fact that the Egyptians themselves would be whole-heartedly in favour of an alliance which fully recognised their national status and dignity." We are now told that what has been granted to Egypt will no doubt, in time, be asked for by India, and cannot in justice be refused.

With the change in the style of Lord Allenby's title, no longer that of " Representative of the King " (Naib-el-malek) but hereafter " Very High Delegate " (Mandub-el-sami), other alterations have been introduced into the form of Egyptian government, although, strictly speaking, pending the confirmation of the new agreement between Egypt and the United Kingdom the *status quo* was supposed to remain in force. The Financial Adviser—once the most important of all Government officers—will no longer take part in Cabinet Councils ; where hitherto there has been a British Under-Secretary there will now be Egyptian Under-Secretaries, endowed with the authority to take the place of their respective chiefs in all discussions conducted in the new parliament. Direct British control, as exercised by the Advisers, disappears as a result of the change of status accorded to Egypt. Once the new Constitution has been put into force, with the new electoral alw providing for the establishment of ministerial obligations, Egypt will have been set afloat upon an unknown sea of responsibility. Much will have to be done in making-up administrative arrears of the last few months, and overcoming those defects of

British policy which have, admittedly, arisen in the intervening years. Slowly but surely the centre of gravity will shift, and politically-minded Egyptians will find themselves engrossed in the thousand and one knotty problems of self-government.

The priceless privilege of dwelling, in common with all the civilised world, upon the grandeur of past glories will no longer satisfy the modern Egyptian. The critical sense of the people has been greatly developed by progress and contact with other countries; they have become more exacting than the older generation with regard to many things. To-day, there are fourteen millions of Egyptians—a considerable nation, twice the size of Belgium. Notwithstanding the fact that of this total three-fourths are *fellahin*, or peasants, and that of the entire nation no fewer than 92 per cent. are classed as illiterates, the Egyptians, freed from that fear of oppression which in olden days had made them acquiescent and submissive, have become a new people with new impulses and new ambitions. The Egyptians of 1922 are a very different people from those of 1910, and still more different from the Egyptians of 1890.

Even the *fellahin*, as a body normally indifferent to politics, are now taking a passing interest in their new form of government. It may prove, indeed, to them merely as a new toy, as a subject of but evanescent interest, and that—after a time—they will again turn complacently—as they have done during these last six thousand years—to the cultivation of their beloved land, leaving to the very limited educated (or semi-educated) classes the task, coupled with the responsibility, of carrying on the administration of the country.

Introduction

The Egyptian *fellahin* are still a primitive people, living on the land and by the land, to which they are passionately devoted, and from which, though working with rude instruments and with little aid from agricultural science, they raise, by their industry and perfect knowledge of the soil, those wonderful crops which form the bed-rock of Egyptian prosperity. Their whole interest in life centres in their crops and in the regular supply of Nile water, without which their fields would be barren. But while their outlook remains thus limited, their independence has developed, and they are now far more tenacious of their rights than in the days of despotism.

But this remarkable change has not come about in the people only. Squalid villages have grown into towns, and towns into cities. While the one-time picturesqueness of the country, as a whole, may have suffered with the disappearance of those scenes and surroundings usually associated with Oriental life, there have simultaneously come into existence certain advantages in the form of modern sanitary arrangements, the arrest of contagious and epidemic diseases, the provision of a constant water-supply, and greater safety for human life.

More than once in these pages, as in other travel volumes that I have given to the world, I have commented upon the remarkable resemblance, both in physical appearance and tribal customs, existing between the ancient Egyptians and the primitive Mexicans (Mayas). Other writers have likewise attached a great deal of importance to these physical parallelisms. When by pursuing the comparative method it is seen that the people of apparently diverse race and history, inhabiting far-separated regions, follow the same practices and hold

much about the same beliefs, it becomes probable that these have descended to them from one common source. No such contention, however, has yet been advanced in the case of the Egyptians and the Mexicans, notwithstanding the very close similarity—especially in regard to religious rites and practices—of these two wholly distinctive and geographically far-separated peoples.

NUBIAN HOUSE ON ELEPHANTINE ISLAND

EGYPT—OLD AND NEW

CHAPTER I

SUPERFICIAL AREA—UPPER AND LOWER EGYPT—POPULATION—THE NUMBERING OF THE PEOPLE—SUNSHINE AND LIFE—EFFECT UPON DISEASE—WORSHIP OF RĀ, THE SUN-GOD—ATMOSPHERIC CHANGES—MEDICAL PROPERTIES—CAIRO NOT A HEALTH RESORT—HELIOPOLIS—HELWÂN—THE PYRAMIDS—THE RAINY SEASON—AN EGYPTIAN SUMMER—EFFECT UPON EUROPEANS—FAYYÛM—EGYPT'S OLDEST AGRICULTURAL COLONY.

FROM having been at one time (1882), nominally at least, as large as two-thirds of European Russia, Egypt to-day has shrunk, in regard to its productive and inhabited part, to dimensions little larger than those of Belgium. Officially, the country's superficial area, including the great Libyan desert with its five oases and a great portion of the Syrian peninsular, contains about 390,000 square miles. As we know it to-day, Egypt measures about 1,000 miles from Alexandria to Wadi-Halfa, its breadth from Port Said to Alexandria being about 200 miles. The apex of the Nile delta lies a little north of Cairo, while southward from that point the habitable country narrows rapidly, being confined in places to a few yards on either bank of the Nile. Egypt, as in olden days, is still divided unequally into "Lower" and "Upper." The boundary between Upper and Lower Egypt also, as in olden times, is to the south of Cairo. Upper Egypt, known as Said, at

one time extended to the first cataract of the Nile, but the boundary line has now been prolonged to the south at Wadi-Halfa. There are seven Upper Egyptian provinces :—Gizeh, Benisuef, Minyeh, Assiut (including the oases of Dakhel and El Kharga), Giegeh, Keneh and Assuan. The six provinces of Lower Egypt are :—Kalyub, at the head of the delta, Sharkiyeh, Dakahliyeh, Menuf, Gharbiyeh and Begereh. A few years back the cultivated area was roughly estimated at 3,000,000 feddâns[1] in Lower Egypt, and 2,200,000 feddâns in Upper Egypt, or a total of 5,200,000 feddâns. To-day, however, while the political area of Egypt is 900,000 square kilometers, or 214,000,000 feddâns, and the geographical area has a total of 8,142,800 feddâns, the agricultural area, outside the Nile banks and above high flood level within the banks, is 7,391,000 feddâns, divided into 2,500,000 feddâns in Upper and 4,891,000 feddâns in Lower Egypt. The political boundary lies far out in the desert, and includes within it millions of feddâns that can never be cultivated from the Nile. Quite recently, the Nile valley within the Egyptian political frontier was measured by the Survey Department.

Very little reliable data as to the population of Ancient Egypt is available, and upon this subject historians differ more widely than usual. Didorus Siculus, the Greek historian, who wrote *A History of the World from the Creation* (57 B.C.), put the population of Egypt in Pharaonic times at little less than 7,000,000. When the Roman general Germanicus Cæsar visited the country (A.D. 19) he learned from the priests that, in the days

[1] 1 feddân = 1 1/20 of an acre (4,200 sq. metres = 5,082 sq. yds.).

of Rameses II, the country had contained no more than 700,000 "fighting-men." In A.D. 70 the Roman Emperor Vespasian, who invaded Britain and destroyed Jerusalem, is said to have collected a poll-tax from 7,500,000 persons, so that including slaves, who paid nothing, and the many others who either escaped or evaded the tax, at least 8,000,000 people must have been in Egypt in those days!

When the French arrived (1798–1801), the inhabitants were estimated at 2,460,000, a figure subsequently corrected to 1,500,000; but both estimates were probably inaccurate. A census was taken in 1882 giving the total population as 6,831,131. The next numbering of the people was not taken until 1917, when it showed the population to be 12,751,000, an increase of 5,919,869, of nearly 87 per cent. in 38 years. The rate of increase of the population in the ten-year period 1898–1907 was 1.490 per cent. per annum, and in the following ten-year period 1908–1917 it had fallen to 1.226 per cent. per annum. It has been computed that by 1955, when Egypt's cultivatable area should be fully developed, and assuming that the rate of increase continues to decrease in the ratio of 0.822 every ten years, the population of the country should be between 17,000,000 and 20,000,000; say 18,500,000.

Under the oldest of laws and regulations, the "taking a census" in Egypt signified to the mind of the *fellahin* merely a pretext for increasing the taxation. This ignorant objection to being numbered (it prevails also among the Indians in South America) always existed among the Egyptian *fellahin*. It is chronicled in the Book of David that: "Satan stood up against Israel and

moved David to number the people." But now that this fear no longer exists, and, by wider distribution, the lightening of each individual's liability has been brought about, we have come to ascertain with some degree of accuracy the real population of the country.

The general healthfulness and great bodily strength of the people of Egypt may be attributed to the long hours of sunlight and warmth which they enjoy. However trying the fierce rays of the sun may be found to Europeans at certain seasons, the Egyptians have never been known to complain of their intensity. Modern medical authorities, who for some years past have been testing the effects of direct sunlight on healthy and sick people, freely recognise the sun as the world's antiseptic. They have noted that the completely smokeless atmosphere in which the people of Egypt live and labour does more than anything to keep them fit and free from disease. From studying the effects of the sun's beneficent rays in that and other countries, it is believed that a wider therapeutic use of sunlight is in contemplation as a surer shield against most of the germs of disease.

Without its glorious sun—creator of light, bestower of ever-changing colour—Egypt would appear to the eye one of the saddest, most gloomy and most unattractive of countries—its glorious river a mere turgent, sluggish stream, almost as repellant as the Styx ; its low hills but shadowy blots upon the horizon. To those travellers who may have chanced to witness the rare phenomena of Egypt under rainy skies or in a grey and sunless atmosphere, the transformation is so startling as to become almost uncanny.

How easy to understand the old Egyptians' worship

of Rā the sun-god, the creator of minor deities and men, above all other gods! Particularly was he adored at Thebes. When he arose in the morning he was powerful Heru-Khuti, or Harmachis; at his setting at night he became to his votaries the beneficent Atmu, or "The Closer." Horus, son of Isis and Osiris, was likewise adored as the Morning Sun, and almost equally venerated. Both gods were represented as having human bodies with the head of a hawk—*hierax*—a bird also greatly worshipped by the ancient Egyptians.

The sun, represented as a heavenly body, was in particular the subject of many theories, probably representing the teaching of the different colleges of priests throughout Egypt. In one place Rā was conceived as sailing in a boat across the ocean of heaven; in another he was recorded as a brilliantly-plumaged hawk, flying across the firmament and driving away hostile clouds; while in a third he was represented as a powerful young hero, new-born every morning from the goddess of the sky, and waging ceaseless warfare with the powers of darkness. The myth of Rā appears to have been chiefly developed in Heliopolis, where, as the sun-god, he was worshipped along with the local deity, Atmu.

Blue, cloudless skies and powerful sunlight are common to most desert countries; but all desert atmospheres are not so attractive to the eye as that of the Libyan, in which Egypt geographically lies. So dry is the air in winter that dew is rarely seen there, even when the thermometer falls, as it occasionally does, to freezing-point; rain, condensed in the upper air, is often dissipated in mist before it can reach the earth. While the mean temperature of the Libyan desert (to the west of the Nile valley)

in winter marks a daily range of temperature between a minimum of 6° to 8° below freezing-point (as recorded by Rohlfs), and a maximum of 122° in the sun, in Cairo and in the greater part of the delta the mean temperature is 56° Fahrenheit.

The coldest time of the year is the latter end of January, the temperature being then no higher than that of London or Berlin at the end of September. In spring the mean temperature is 78°; in summer 83°; and in autumn 66°. Cairo as a place of residence is less warm than Alexandria, the latter being more influenced by sun. Throughout Egypt the temperature reaches the minimum before sunrise, when it is often very cold—as those who may have chanced to sleep in the open desert will have quickly realised. It is not until an hour before midday that the temperature becomes really warm, attaining its zenith at between 2 and 3 p.m., after which hour it gradually diminishes in intensity. Unlike the French and Italian Riviera, however, there is here no sudden fall of temperature at sunset, except on the widespread stretches of cultivated land, for all night temperature is considerably affected by vegetation. Visitors to Cairo or Luxor in the harvest season will no doubt have noted that the nocturnal temperature sinks there much lower than in the towns or in mid-desert.

But the Egyptian cold is different to that of Europe; the extreme dryness of the atmosphere makes it felt more keenly. Undoubtedly some radical change in the climate of Egypt must have taken place during the past few centuries, judging by the descriptions of conditions contained in ancient documents, and even according to later experiences.

A PALM GROVE ON ELEPHANTINE ISLAND

Health Districts

Following the subjection of Egypt to the Romans, in 30 B.C., Egypt became known for its beneficial influences upon certain maladies ; disease-laden Romans seem to have been particularly drawn there. The dry winter climate no doubt helped those afflicted with phthisis, while sufferers from asthma, bronchitis, Bright's disease (under whatever name it was then recognised), rheumatoid arthritis, gout, dyspepsia and mental strain found at least partial relief from their ailments, mostly brought on by luxurious living.

But it would be a mistake to describe Cairo as a " health-resort," for it is far from this. Apart from the noisome dust and pestilential hordes of flies met with, and which no amount of civilisation or sanitary regulation seems to be able to control, the noise and heat of the city streets would be sufficient to condemn Cairo as a " pleasant " place of residence, even for the healthy.

It is immediately outside of the city that the purity of air and the tranquillity of surroundings appeal to one. Even there, however, one cannot altogether escape the cold winds coming down from the north, sweeping over the broad cultivated delta, nor yet the unhealthy saturation rising in the early part of winter from the many low-lying parts of the town, where heaps of old rubbish are still found. Those districts less subject to damp, wind or smell include Helwân (Helouan-les-Bains), an artificial oasis in the desert lying some three miles from the Nile, and fourteen from Cairo ; Heliopolis (City of the Sun), built upon the site of one of the oldest of Egyptian cities, lying about six miles from the capital ; and that of the Pyramids (Mena House), a little less than ten miles from the city. All three are places where

one can live pleasantly, drink in the glorious sunshine upon most days, and revel in the exquisitely exhilarating air. But when the desert wind blows, raising the sand into dense clouds, the comforts of indoors must be sought —and sought quickly. An Egyptian sandstorm, even when light in character, is a visitation to be avoided, especially by those who suffer from respiratory or renal complaints.

Peculiar qualities in the air of the desert are also found to benefit those of a neurotic or mentally-depressed disposition, while the quietude of the surroundings can but prove acceptable to those who are but poor sleepers. Heliopolis and Helwân are well provided with sanatoria and hospitals, both for foreign and native patients, and, according to all accounts, some remarkable cures have been effected within their walls or sheltered grounds.

Over ten thousand years ago the sanctuaries of ancient Heliopolis—(later "Matarîyeh")—then lying probably about five miles to the north-west of Cairo, like those of Memphis, Abydos, Thebes and other flourishing Egyptian cities, were believed to be the abodes of gods. The numerous beautiful buildings which once must have covered this wide area were doubtless devoted to the worship of deities; but their identity, like that of the many thousands of priests who officiated in them, have been for ever lost. Here came Joseph of the Bible to seek in marriage from Pharaoh the fair Asenath, daughter of Pa-tā-pa-Rā (Potiphar), a priest of the Temple; here also later halted the all-conquering Macedonian, Alexander the Great, on his triumphant way from Pelusium to Memphis. Modern caravanserais which adorn the site, such as the Palace Hotel and the Heliopolis

House, with their Moorish style of architecture and their charming surroundings, must stand, like the boulevards and their numerous shops, upon almost sacred ground.

Nor was Heliopolis sanctified only among the old Egyptians. Christians likewise revered the site, since it was thought to be that of the little village of Matarîyeh, where once stood the sycamore-tree still called the "Virgin's Tree," under which the Virgin Mary sat and rested during the flight to Egypt. Where the Mother of Jesus, hunted and distraught, may once have roamed, now extend sports grounds, golf links, football fields and cricket pitches; while beyond stretches the Heliopolis racecourse, one of the most frequented and most fashionable in Egypt, to say nothing of a farm kept by some Frenchmen for the breeding of ostriches, and who—so it is reported—derive therefrom a profitable revenue.

Helwân (known for its baths) is built upon one of several artificial oases lying about three miles from the Nile, and is served by a small railway. It takes but one hour to reach the resort from Cairo, the road being across a narrow plain between the river and the hills, and generally on the boundary line between cultivated land and the desert. Helwân has no particular relation to history, except as having been the place where the Khedive Tewfik Pasha, who had come there for the benefit of his health, died in January 1892, thus contesting the claims of this desert health-resort to the possession of "marvellous curative powers."

Throughout the desert-area of Egypt, occasionally in comparatively depressed regions, one encounters other oases, which derive their water by infiltration from the

Nile, or from other sources of subterranean supply. Indeed, throughout the delta and the Nile valley there are found abundant deposits of water-bearing sands, lying generally some fifty feet below the surface, while in Upper Egypt water can be tapped at depths not exceeding thirty-five feet, even in the driest season.

Neither is Egypt altogether, as many suppose, a "rainless region." Far from it; for the rainy season is defined well enough, especially in the western equatorial basin. The Nile itself rises in a region of almost perpetual rains. Around Cairo and district rain clouds are often driven in from the sea and discharge themselves in rapid, short showers. Sometimes, however, it will rain heavily for an entire day. Alexandria and the coast of the delta come also well within the region of winter rains, but the atmosphere there absorbs all moisture so quickly as to prevent entirely—or almost entirely—malarial diseases which would otherwise be generated, perhaps to an extraordinary extent, by the sluggish waters of the various mouths of the Nile. So far as Upper Egypt is concerned, malaria is quite unknown. A very different story has to be told, however, in regard to Lower Egypt and the Sudan.

Of its summer climate writers of travel-books on Egypt say, perhaps advisedly, but little. Yet any European or inhabitant of a temperate clime who has been condemned to spend even a month in Egypt during the hot season—as were many unfortunate Australian and British soldiers during the war—will confirm that nothing more trying to the health and temper can well be imagined. The hateful *khamseen* wind, with the breath of a fiery furnace, blows intermittently over a period of

A CLOSE VIEW OF CAIRO FROM THE HILLS.

A CLOSER VIEW OF CAIRO, WITH MOSQUE IN THE FOREGROUND.

fifty days (from late April to early June), while the daily temperature ranges between 98° in the shade and 149° in the sun. The thermometer, marking over 100° at 7 a.m., rises gradually, declining thereafter only towards sunset. During these long hours much human misery is occasioned. One's trials can only be compared to those sustained during the hot season in India. It is impossible to breathe without inconvenience, or to sleep in comfort ; all that one can do is to lie prone in a state as nude as permissible and to perspire, to gasp, and—worst, but least resistible of impulses—to drink cooling draughts. Cases of malaria and sunstroke are frequent among summer residents in Egypt ; some victims become rapidly delirious, while all alike are rendered extremely irritable. Where there is an abundance of water available, relief is obtained through bathing, and by the application of damp towels or handkerchiefs to the head and neck. But in the interior of Egypt water is sometimes as precious as pearls, and where found even in good supply is rendered not infrequently unsafe to bathers (in the absence of powerful disinfectants) by reason of certain impurities and the number of parasites which it contains.

More than one historian has exhausted himself in attempting to describe the peculiar attractions of El Fayyûm—literally the "water" or "lake district"—from Pliny, the Roman writer, and Strabo, the Greek geographer, to Sir Hanbury Brown and Robert Hitchins. In superficial area El Fayyûm, located upon a moderate plateau in the great Libyan desert, probably measures less than one thousand square miles. Almost every yard of the land, however, is agriculturally of value. The work of reclaiming the good ground from marshy

lands was commenced by that industrious and enterprising King, Amen-em-Hat, who lived about 2300 B.C.; it was continued thereafter from dynasty to dynasty, and from generation to generation, while the beneficent, fertilising Nile has played its part through the centuries by depositing its precious mud upon the thick belt of salted loams that cover a great part of this land.

During the late war, many of our men—officers and Tommies alike—came to know the Fayyûm and to appreciate its semi-tropical attractions, agreeable enough, no doubt, after the dust, the heat and the noise of Cairo. A large British camp was located there; but good care was taken to keep it free from contact with the plague-laden villages of the district. At one time El Fayyûm was considered to be tolerably free from plague; but this immunity was certainly lost during the war. The population, formed of the poorest but most hard-working of the native inhabitants, comprises *fellahin*, fishermen and Bedouins, some of whom have never been out of their district, notwithstanding that they live and labour within a distance of seventy-five miles of Cairo itself, and that a small railway exists to carry them there, should they desire to go, in a little over four hours.

CHAPTER II

THE NILE—SUNRISE AND SUNSET—SCENERY AND SILENCE—WHY THE EGYPTIANS WORSHIPPED IT—COURSE FROM CRADLE TO SEA—THE CATARACTS—NILE GAUGES AND THEIR USES—ANCIENT AND MODERN METHODS OF COMPUTATION—RODA ISLAND NILOMETER—RISE AND FALL OF RIVER THROUGHOUT THE YEAR—CONTROL OF FLOOD IN OLDEN DAYS—THE *CORVÉE*—THE COST TO EGYPT OF ITS ABOLITION—MODERN METHODS.

IN no country of the world can the Biblical injunction—"Stand still and consider the wondrous works of God"—come home to the traveller with so great a force and meaning as in Egypt. Here there are combined mystery and majesty such as can be found nowhere else in the wide universe, while the knowledge that he is treading ground sanctified by immeasurable age and hallowed by sacred tradition adds to the feeling of awe and reverence with which the traveller pursues his fascinating way. The "voice of Egypt" no doubt speaks to her various votaries in tones of different quality and significance, while her wonderfully diversified scenery must appeal to some minds more eloquently than others. A cloudy or a cloudless sky will spell a great dissimilarity. At dawn, one may watch a pallid-pink, shell-like hue diffuse itself across the zenith, which, as one admires it, changes insensibly to deep rose, flecked here and there with glowing crimson, china-blue and saffron yellow. These colours change with the light, upon which they depend no less for their best effects upon perspectives or near-at-hand objects. The rippling river, moving sluggishly

but for ever onward, looks like a large bronze serpent; the distant hills—now rose, now purple, and again almost black against the fast-lightening sky—awake to life simultaneously with the opening of day. Then comes noon with its dazzling deep-cut shadows, its intensity of colourings and sharply-defined reliefs; or, again, glorious sunset, for which sweet Nature seems to have dramatically reserved all her prettiest tints, her most perfect shades and loveliest combinations of effects, when that mysterious, long-drawn-out veil of fairy-like vapour takes on—now here, now there, then all around—the mysterious rose light, called the afterglow, which makes way, only too rapidly, for purple night and the silvery stars.

All is so beautiful—all is so unexpected! You declare ecstatically that your enjoyment shall be repeated, and that to-morrow evening you will repair once more to this selfsame glory-spot to watch and to worship. But never again shall you see the selfsame wonder! Fortuitously you may witness something even more wondrous, more entrancing; or, perhaps, a setting of Nature infinitely less lovely and less affecting. But it will not be the same—never the same again! Nature seldom imitates her miracles, and rarely, if ever, in connection with sunsets and sunrises.

How twice blessed have you been, my reader, if to you has been vouchsafed a glimpse of all these heavenly pictures attended by complete silence and unbroken rest—"Silent as a dream the fabric rises"—and in that tranquillity of mind, maybe, your soul has been permitted to rise untrammelled in gratitude and ecstasy to the Bountiful Giver of all things.

PALM GROVE NEAR KARNAK

WHEATFIELD NEAR LUXOR

"The Old Order"

When—long years ago—at Luxor, amazed and entranced, I sat on the banks of the Nile to drink in the beauty of my first spectacle of an Egyptian sunset, such tranquillity, such perfect soul-restfulness were mine. I can never be too thankful for that priceless boon. It then gave me something inexpressibly precious to think over, something to gloat upon, something to recall many times in other lands and under different climes—at periods of mental trouble or physical suffering—a memory that has never faded and never can fade.

I know that such an opportunity can hardly recur, that such emotions as were then evoked can never be repeated, nor such mental consolations ever again be offered. Upon many occasions since I have stood above this incomparable river; but how different have been the conditions, how wholly strange and uncongenial the surroundings! The graceful, gliding *dahabeah* has given place to the evil-smelling, overcrowded steamboat. The low, musical sound of the native oarsmen's singing has been replaced by the rollicking, insolent chant of the *darabooka* crew; their lay—if the passengers but understood its meaning—being a string of lewd epithets and coarse abuse of all Christians, and of Christian tourists in particular. Thus hath the old order changed!

There are some who may recognise in the River Nile rather less of beauty than of romance. Even the Cataracts, with their huge masses of blackened rocks, piled one upon the other like the playthings of a giant, may fail to evoke expressions of wonder or admiration. It is, however, easy to understand the deep reverence that was paid to the Nile by the ancient Egyptians, and no less by races which have followed them; one and all have

recognised in the waters of that river the life-blood of the country—nay, the very existence of Egypt, and the boundless source of their health, happiness and wealth. It was not only in heathen times that the Nile was worshipped as a god : so great was he that neither could he be sculptured in stone on the many statues on which are set the crowns of the South and North, nor could he be served as other gods were served.

To the deity of the Nile were attributed all the virtues of every other god, in addition to specific attributes of his own. Even the Muhammedans have devoted festivals to the rising of the Nile, their ceremonies resembling those of the ancient period of the Pharaohs. Latter-day worship of the Nile takes the form of adapting its bountiful waters to the duties of irrigation, thus increasing the material wealth of man, and, at the same time, abolishing the old Egyptian belief that unless certain prescribed ceremonies were performed and sacrifices made at the right season, in the proper manner, and by duly qualified persons, the river would refuse to rise and water the lands.

None could have dreamed that one day the magic wand of the engineer would, by dams and barrages, contrive to firmly imprison the Nile's free and foaming waters, and render the dwellers on its banks completely independent of an annual rise or fall.

The total length of this wonderful African river, " the father of streams," is 4,100 miles. Its birthplace, located about three degrees south of the Equator, was discovered by the explorers Captains Grant and Speke, in conjunction with Sir Samuel Baker, in 1861. Its cradle is in the region of perpetual rains, its waters being

A MAIL LINER AT PORT SAID.

FISHING BOATS HOMEWARD BOUND.

A NILE STEAMER NEAR LUXOR.

amplified by springs and tributaries, like the Tangourie River; the great lakes of Victoria and Albert are its parents. There is a distance of 300 miles between the two, the intervening space being composed of a number of swamps. Thence the waters flow on to Lado, in Belgian Congo, and then course onwards to Bohr (or Bor), in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, within which area are found those wonderful masses of living vegetation known as the "sudd"—gigantic weeds of the water-rush type, which, by their number and size, formed, before engineering skill came to the rescue, dense and insuperable barriers to any kind of river navigation.

Known under various names, including that of the "Ghezel River," the White Nile sweeps westward on its course past Khartoum, a place situated some 560 miles from the river's source, and there it meets another stream —really the same river diverted—known as the Blue Nile, coming down from Abyssinia. The waters of the Blue Nile, which already have travelled 840 miles on their journey, run for miles side by side with the waters of the White Nile, the two streams being distinctly defined by their respective colours—one of a green-blueish the other of a reddish-brown tint, on account of its waters being heavily charged with the rich alluvium washed down from the banks during its course.

Some 56 miles below Khartoum occurs the sixth cataract, counting the falls from Assuan; or, if the journey be commenced from the source on Lake Victoria, then the first cataract. One hundred and forty-five miles below Khartoum the Nile receives the waters of the River Atbara, which, rising in the Abyssinian mountains, brings down with it vast quantities of volcanic dust,

forming a valuable element in the fertilising capabilities of its irrigating waters. The Atbara is the last stream to join the on-flowing Nile, which thereafter travels along for 32 miles uninterruptedly, broad and deep and sometimes enormously forceful, to a spot where is formed the fifth cataract, extending to over 100 miles in length. Between the southern and northern ends the river drops over 200 feet.

Sixty miles lower down begins the fourth cataract, having a length of 66 miles. Between the southern and northern ends the Nile drops again 160 feet. The third cataract—about 45 miles in length—begins at a distance of 195 miles ; between the southern and northern ends the river drops 36 feet. The second cataract begins about 70 miles lower down ; it has a length of 125 miles, and between its two ends the river drops about 213 feet. At Semneh, about 35 miles further on, are the rocks where were cut the Nile gauges used in the days of the kings of the Twelfth Dynasty (about 2300 B.C.), and discovered by the late Dr. Lepsius. These gauges record that the highest Nile flood known had been 26 feet above anything realised since those days.

There seems no doubt that the ancient Egyptians preserved very careful accounts of the height of the Nile in flood, for, in addition to the Nilometer at Semneh, already referred to, many others have been found, for instance, at Philæ, Elephantine, Edfú, Esneh, Karnak, etc., exclusive of the famous Nilometer constructed on the island of Roda, under the Muhammedan régime, by the Caliph Sulemân (A.D. 715–717), and which was restored, one hundred years later (A.D. 813–833), by Mamûn.

OBELISKS AT KARNAK

The Nilometer

Upon the reading of the Nilometer depended the amount of taxation to be borne by the people, who were assessed according to the height of the inundation and its probable beneficial effects upon their crops.

After passing over the cataract at Assuan the river flows on, without interruption, past Luxor, Assiut, Cairo and Rosetta, down to the sea, a distance of something like 600 miles. The fall between the Assuan and sea-level is 305 feet. In olden days, before modern engineering interfered with its freedom of action, the river emptied its waters into the sea by seven different mouths, and, in flood time, the waters took 50 days to flow from distant Lake Victoria to the ocean, a speed which became reduced to 90 days at low water.

So carefully have observations of the river's progress been taken that it is now possible to say with accuracy that its waters pass from Lake Victoria to Lake Albert in the course of 8 days; from Lake Albert to Lado in 5 days; from Lado to Khartoum in 20 days; from Khartoum to Assuan in 10 days; from Assuan to Cairo in 5 days; and from Cairo to the open sea in two days. At low water there is no difference in the time of flow from the great lakes to Lado; but thereafter the 20 days between Lado and Khartoum become increased to 36, and the 10 days between Khartoum and Assuan become increased to 26, while between Assuan and Cairo there is an extension of 7 days, and from Cairo to the sea of one day.

Altogether, the Nile drains 3,110,000 square kilometres. Its width varies greatly, being 4 to 10 miles in Nubia but widening from 15 to 30 miles in Egypt. The inundation is occasioned by falls of rain in the

Abyssinian mountains, 4,000 miles distant ; but although these downpours begin at Lake Victoria towards the middle of February and last until November, with one maximum fall in April and another in October, it is not until well on in July, after the Blue Nile has commenced to rise, that any indication as to the kind of ultimate water-supply can be gathered. It is known, however, that once the red water goes down from the Blue Nile there will be a rapid rise, for the Atbara swells into flood shortly after the Blue Nile, beginning to contribute its waters in July and reaching to high-flood about the middle of September. In this condition it remains for a period of about three weeks, but in October it once more begins to rise, and soon attains its highest level, thereafter gradually subsiding. Although, upon occasions, it has been known to resume its rise rather later, the river sinks steadily until the month of June, when it dwindles away to its lowest level.

It has always been the object of the Egyptians to control the vagaries of the Nile, and to impede as much as possible the waste of its precious waters. In the earliest days of Egyptian government, dykes or embankments were constructed to keep in check the waters and to regulate their distribution over lands where, in those far-off Pharaonic days, widespread cultivation by irrigation took place. Observant travellers like Strabo made out that the ancient system of irrigation was so perfect that the varying heights of the inundation caused but little inconvenience to the inhabitants, so far as the results of their agricultural labours were concerned. But in those days, as in these, a particularly high Nile would wash away whole villages, drown thousands of

head of cattle, and, perhaps, destroy the season's entire cultivation. It is recorded that Amen-em-Hat III (2300 B.C.), who must have been a remarkably able engineer as well as a painstaking and enterprising monarch, paid special attention to the rise of the Nile, employing thousands of men upon digging canals and making sluices for the irrigation of the country, and completing his industry by forming the famous Lake Moeris (hollowed out of the earth to form a receptacle for the Nile's overflow) at El Fayyûm, the town in the delta, located 75 miles from Cairo. The whole of this still-fertile district is said to have been reclaimed from the desert by the same industrious king. When Seti I, who succeeded over 900 years later (1366 B.C.), was not engaged upon carrying on warfare with the rebellious tribes of Western Asia, he also devoted his attention to building canals, particularly one from the Nile to the Red Sea, intended both for irrigation and transport purposes.

The Romans were the next to give serious consideration to Nile irrigation by means of canals and dams, Germanicus, who visited Egypt while Tiberius reigned at Rome (A.D. 19), bestowing much attention on this subject. Tacitus has quite a lot to tell us about him in this connection. No progress, however, had been recorded under the dynasties of the Byzantines (from A.D. 395 to A.D. 629), nor yet under that of the Muhammedans (who ruled from 640 onwards) until 1805, when Mohammed Ali drew out plans for irrigation, while his fourth son, Said Pasha, carrying on his work, also built railways in the delta and granted a concession for the making of the Suez Canal. In con-

nection with both undertakings this autocratic ruler of Egypt (by no means as cruel as some of his predecessors) employed the *corvée*, a law which converted the already wretched *fellahin* into nothing less than slaves compelled to work day after day and month after month for nothing. Victims of the *corvée* had to serve for a full nine months of each year, and even to provide their own spades, baskets and food, their place of abode being changed almost daily and their sleeping-places being the hard, bare ground. In times of real or threatened inundation they were compelled to stay continuously on the river-side, and to furnish all necessary materials for the protection of the bank on each side of the Nile. Every male Egyptian between fifteen and fifty years of age was liable to serve, and in each quarter of the city all members of the male population were expected to work for forty-five days during the summer months. It was due to British rule, under the advice and with the able assistance of the late Lord Cromer, that, in 1889, the hated *corvée* was abolished, notwithstanding that it cost Egypt a sum of £420,000 per annum to do without forced labour. While forced labour under the *corvée* has happily long been relegated to oblivion, at times of flood even now native dwellers upon the river-banks are liable to be called upon in any special emergency, but men sufficient in number only to meet the exigencies of the flood are summoned.

The modern application of artificial irrigation in Egypt, with its vast economic possibilities for the country, is so full of interest that a separate chapter (XIV) has been devoted to its consideration and description.

THE SOUTH SLOPE OF A ROYAL BURIAL GROUND

CHAPTER III

HISTORICAL IMPORTANCE OF EGYPT—NOT THE OLDEST OF PRIMITIVE PEOPLE—WHAT THEIR RECORDS TELL US—MARIETTE—SERVICES TO EGYPTOLOGY—LIFE AND DEATH—DISCOVERIES AT SAKKÂRA—THE STEP PYRAMID—MEXICAN PYRAMID OF CHOLULA—THE NECROPOLIS—ANCIENT BURIALS—EVOLUTION OF THE TOMB—THE EMBALMERS—CHARACTER OF TOMB STRUCTURE—CLIMBING THE PYRAMID—BURIAL CUSTOMS OF OTHER NATIONS COMPARED—MASTABA TOMBS—ARCHITECTURAL SURPRISES—AUTHORS TO READ ON ANCIENT EGYPT.

WHILE it is an error to suppose, as many do, that of all ancient countries Egypt is the richest in archæological interest and goes furthest back into the darkness of antiquity—many are forgetful, or, perhaps, even ignorant of the more remote prehistoric lands of Mexico, Java and Ceylon, as well as of some other countries inhabited by long-extinct races—Egypt undoubtedly challenges our admiration and interest as a land of great historical importance. There can be no country in the world offering a wider field for research, nor one in which the line of archæological study has been, or may yet be, more clearly followed. As in all records of ancient history, however, many facts have become inextricably mixed with fable, while even genuine records teem with inaccuracies and exaggerations of varying degrees.

But in connection with a large number of recovered Egyptian records confirmatory evidence of a remarkable character has been found in contemporary and sometimes in later accounts, such as those furnished by

Assyrian and Hebrew writers, for whose Oriental love of ornate description, of course, due allowance has to be made. Thanks to the extraordinarily large collection of Egyptian relics that have come down to us—added to continually by means of further excavations and wider discoveries—we are in a favourable position to form an accurate conception of the kind of life led by these wonderful people seven thousand years ago.

To the classical archæologist and distinguished French explorer, Auguste Ferdinand Mariette, who was born one hundred years ago, and died, a great physical sufferer, in 1881, we owe practically everything we know to-day about Sakkâra, as well as much about Abydos, Dendara and Memphis. To mention all, or even the greater part, of the scholarly works on Egyptology written by this authority, who, at the age of twenty was appointed a professor, would occupy more space in this volume than can be spared ; but no modern writer upon Egypt could neglect to pay tribute to the memory of a confrère who supplied the world with such an extraordinary wealth of information as that bequeathed by Mariette, whose vigorous style, descriptive form and consummate knowledge of his subject have been acknowledged by students of ancient literature, such as Coptic and Syriac.

Surrounded by his silent bodyguard of sculptured sphinxes, discovered and brought by him from the Serapeaum—or Apis Mausoleum—at Memphis, the body of the great Mariette, embalmed by his express wish, reposes in its marble sarcophagus in the Museum of Bulâk, an institution founded by him and of which he was the first director. He sleeps on placidly amid his treasured antiquities, whose secrets he has given to the whole world.

THE EGYPTIAN ASS—"AWAITING HIRE."

THE EGYPTIAN BUFFALO.

A HALT IN THE SUBURBS.

Mariette

Long before Mariette came from France to Egypt, as if attracted thither by some undefined and irresistible attraction, to lay bare the unsuspected treasures of old Sakkâra, robber Arabs had been busily at work amid the tombs, pillaging and desecrating the abode of the dead. Stone graves were found to have been smashed to pieces in order that the thieves might gain access to the treasures supposed to have been enclosed ; walls, once beautifully painted and decorated—though in their dark solitude no living eye might look upon them—were ruthlessly destroyed ; inscriptions, exquisitely drawn in coloured designs, were disfigured and defaced. Such outrages must have continued unchecked for a long but undefined period ; they had been carried out at the pyramids of Unas, Tcheser, Tetá and other dead and forgotten kings of ancient Egypt, who for thousands of years had lain undisturbed in their closely concealed mortuary chambers, awaiting, as they had believed, resurrection.

There still remains the original house—simple but commodious—in which the famous French Egyptologist and his staff of assistants resided for many years while conducting their investigations at Sakkâra. The visitor is at liberty to wander over the broad covered terrace in front of the house, and to examine it at his leisure. Many who visit the dwelling, kept by order of the Government in a good state of repair, regard it almost as a shrine.

Sakkâra forms practically one great necropolis, extending in length between four and four and a-half miles, and in width from one-quarter to one mile. Every type of tomb and sepulchral monument known to the ancient Egyptians, who were the first to introduce such memorials

to the dead, may be found within this area—from the pyramid of colossal dimensions to the rock-hewn cavern only sufficiently large to contain a body ; from that of a mummy-cat to that of a mummy-king, and dating from the earliest, even prehistoric, period to the latest empire that endured in Egypt.

The Egyptian pyramids—structures of stone or brick-work standing on a square base and tapering upwards to an apex—are not, as many suppose, the largest in the world. The monument which deserves that distinction is to be found at Cholula, an ancient town in the State of Puebla, Mexico, covering forty-five acres of ground, erected as a sacrificial place to the god Quetzalcoatl, whereas the largest pyramid in Egypt, that of Cheops, belonging to the Gizeh group, covers no more than thirteen acres. But even that area contains ninety million cubic feet of stone, and, according to Sir William Tite, no such construction could be built nowadays for less than thirty millions of money (sterling).

There are over seven-and-forty more or less important tombs or pyramids that have been explored and described by archæologists in various publications ; the most complete and accurate of these are those written by Mariette Bey, who thoroughly examined Sakkâra upon his arrival in Egypt in 1850. To appreciate the real value of the Sakkâra tombs, one should spend at least a week in the neighbourhood ; but the majority of people devote less than a day (sometimes an hour or so) to an examination of what is undoubtedly the most remarkable burial-place in the world. Conspicuous above all the ancient monuments is the Step Pyramid, formerly the tomb of King Zoser, of the Third Dynasty, said to be one of

ENTRANCE TO A ROCK GRAVE

the oldest historical monuments in Egypt that have been left practically intact. The Step Pyramid has been so named because it was built in six sections or stages, the lowest of which, according to the careful Baedeker, who devotes many pages to a detailed description of this and other monumental marvels in the neighbourhood, is about 37¾ feet in height, the next 36 feet, the third 34½ feet, the fourth 32¾ feet, the fifth 31 feet, and the sixth 29⅓ feet, while each stage recedes about 6½ feet as compared with the one below. The perpendicular height is 196 feet. The construction material is of inferior stone, taken from the immediate neighbourhood, and quite unlike the quality of material found at Assuan, being, in fact, a poor, clayey limestone, whereas the Assuan building material mostly used for tombs and temple construction was of the finest granite. To those who wish to ascend the Step Pyramid permission is easily accorded; but the task is a painful one physically, and cannot be undertaken without the assistance of Bedouin guides, who may be found awaiting such an engagement in hundreds. Two strong men at least are necessary, one to pull up the climber by hand, the other to push him vigorously from behind, since the height between the various steps is too steep for a human being to surmount without such bodily assistance.

It is possible to trace at Sakkâra the gradual evolution of the Egyptian tomb, from the earliest form in use, which was either dug in or hollowed out of the sand; cut in the soft limestone; or hewn from the hard living rock. All Oriental peoples practice inhumation (the burial of corpses in the earth), but assuredly no ancient nation possessed more interesting burial customs than

the Egyptians. Whereas they devoted weeks, and sometimes months, to the careful preparation of a single human body for the tomb (the office of embalmer being considered the lowest of any, inherited by son from father, and handed on from generation to generation), the Australian aborigines contented themselves with minor and more expeditious ceremonies, such as taking off the nails of the corpse and tying the hands so that it might not be able to work its way out from the grave. Norse warriors were buried with their horses and armour ready for the resurrection ride to Valhalla; the Laplanders still place beside the corpse steel, flint and tinder for the dark journey; while numerous other primitive people give evidence of thoughtfulness to the needs of the next life. Did not the Greeks place a coin (an *obolus*) on the tongue of the deceased in order to pay Charon, the son of Erebus and Nox, for ferrying him over the Styx to the infernal regions? And did not they also prepare honey-cakes in order to propitiate Cerberus, who guarded the gates of Hell?

Egyptian sepulchres were sometimes made of stone and sometimes of brick; on other occasions they appear to have been composed of both. The stone or brick-lined grave was the earliest tomb in Egypt; then, ranging from a simple cavity in the ground, without any outside decoration or distinguishing mark, the tomb grew to a stone structure, elaborately sculptured. This change, we learn, came about only by gradual evolution. In time, tomb-structures attained enormous dimensions, and were provided with massive protecting walls; but for a considerable period such erections would appear to have been reserved entirely for kings, their chief

nobles, head-priests and high court officials. Later on, other classes, which could afford the luxury, were privileged to participate in this form of burial.

The most impressive type of sepulchral building is that known as the "mastaba," so called because it assumed a form resembling a bench, the length being great in proportion to the height; that is to say, it had a perfectly flat top with the sides sloping very slightly downwards. According to Mariette, these structures did not resemble portions of pyramids, but rather sections cut horizontally out of an obelisk, supposing the obelisk to have a rectangular base. The same authority has told us that the walls of such buildings were of varying thickness, and that, while few were built in exactly the same manner, a common characteristic of them all was the very inferior character of material used for the course. This discovery seems to have created as much astonishment in the minds of Egyptologists as the comparative frailty and instability of the foundations of many of the larger temples, the marvel being that such ponderous structures, or any part of them, could have stood so long in an erect position upon so shallow a base.

It would be impossible within the compass of this chapter to give anything like a complete description of the "mastaba" or other tombs to be seen at Sakkâra; nor could it be deemed necessary, since nothing that could be written down here could compare for accuracy or completeness with what has already been provided for all who seek information on the subject by such masterpens as those of Mariette and Budge, of Petrie and Willcocks, to whose fascinating and instructive works upon ancient Egypt the reader is respectfully referred.

CHAPTER IV

THEBES—ITS FORMER MAGNIFICENCE—TEMPLES THE WONDER OF THE WORLD—BIRTHPLACE OF MANY DYNASTIES—DECLINE OF SPLENDOUR—MARIETTE'S DISCOVERIES—RESTORATION OF GREAT TEMPLE OF AMMON—LUXOR AND ITS WONDERFUL REMAINS—KARNAK AND ITS PYLONS—DISCOVERIES OF FESTIVAL HALL AND OTHER GIGANTIC RUINS—FORTIFIED CITIES—SHALLOW FOUNDATIONS ASTOUND MODERN ARCHITECTS—SECRET OF LONG-STANDING STRUCTURES—FALL OF COLUMNS AT KARNAK.

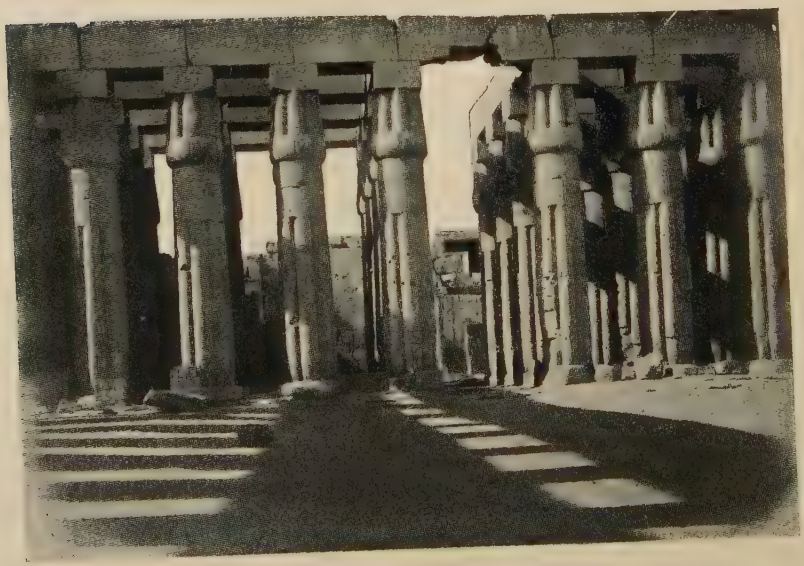
ANCIENT Thebes, or Diospolis—the birthplace of several dynasties of Egypt, situated on both banks of the Nile about three hundred miles from Cairo—stood in the centre of an immense basin or valley, richly endowed, through the beneficent irrigation of the river, with natural products; the city was surrounded by a wide girdle of mountains. In the days of the Middle Empire (2500 to 1200 B.C.) four dynasties ruled Egypt. Thebes became the centre of their great Egyptian empire and the favourite city of the most powerful of the Pharaohs, but it was between 1600 and 1100 B.C. that the city reached the apex of its glory. Nowhere in that wonderful land of Egypt could there have been a greater collection of magnificent or stupendous temples, mostly erected to the local deity, Amen; Thebes at this period had become a veritable storehouse of untold treasure, seized from a number of different conquered nations.

Poets and philosophers, historians and mere travellers of all ages have sung the praises and the fame of wonderful

HEADLESS STATUES OF RAMESES II AT THEBES.

ANOTHER VIEW OF THE SAME RUINS.

LUXOR—RUINED TEMPLES.



COLONNADED VESTIBULE AT LUXOR.

Thebes

Thebes—"the city of the hundred gates." Homer tells of it in the *Iliad* (ix. 381); Herodotus, who never saw the city, none the less proclaimed its beauties; Diodorus, who did see it about 57 B.C., had much to say about its stately buildings, magnificent temples, and "rich donations and revenues"; Strabo, who visited Egypt about 24 B.C., likewise talks of its great wealth; while all alike regarded Thebes as the metropolis of Egypt.

Just as Thebes ranked as the most wealthy and most beautiful of Egypt's cities, so was Karnak the most handsome and splendid portion of Thebes; its wealth and taste were displayed in the number and character of the architectural constructions, many of which to this day form the most complete and majestic of ruins.

Egyptologists declare that the Temple of Amen at Karnak must, for grandeur of conception, be considered alone among the world's most famous heathen buildings, unapproached either for the vast dimensions of its edifices, the massiveness of its gates, the beauty and richness of its mural decorations, or the exquisite character of its carvings.

From Thebes came the first king of the Eighteenth Dynasty, Aahmes I. He re-established the independence of Egypt, while Thothmes III, his descendant, made victorious expeditions into Mesopotamia and proved one of the greatest kings that ever ruled over Egypt. But that did not prevent his last resting-place from being plundered and his mummy from being mutilated by Arab thieves.

Other warrior monarchs, such as Amen-hetep III, who made successful wars in lands to the South and in Asia, and his son, Amen-hetep IV, who founded the city

of Khuaten, in addition to the great Rameses III, all of whom built lordly cities and graceful temples at Thebes, Abydos and Heliopolis, came from this same city of Thebes, which continued to supply a succession of notable kings, queens and princes until the advent of the Libyans, who ruled over the country from the days of Bubastis, or Tell-Basta (about 960). Of their doings one may read at length in the *Book of Kings* and *Chronicles*. The first of their warlike line, Shashanq (no doubt the Hebrew persecutor "Shishak" of the Bible), besieged Jerusalem, pillaged the temple and carried away much spoil. That monarch's achievement, are also duly chronicled in Biblical passages (*Kings* I, chap. xiv, ver. 25–28, and *Chronicles* II, chap. xii. ver. 2–4 and 9).

But under the rule of Shashanq and that of his immediate successors Egypt commenced to lose many of her foreign possessions, and eventually became herself the easy prey of other warlike nations, such as the Greeks, the Persians and the Macedonians. Skilled explorers like Mariette Bey, the first to afford us any consecutive or complete conception of Egyptian ruins, have enabled us to build up in our minds almost an exact replica of the wonderful temples at Karnak, Luxor and other places wherein the kings of Egypt vied with each other in raising to their own fame and memory sculptured monuments, one more amazing for its magnificence than another.

At the period between 1700 and 1400 B.C. the favourite form of temple-building appears to have been a rectangular construction with a colonnade running round the four sides, and a parapet resting upon severely plain square pillars that supported the roofing and formed

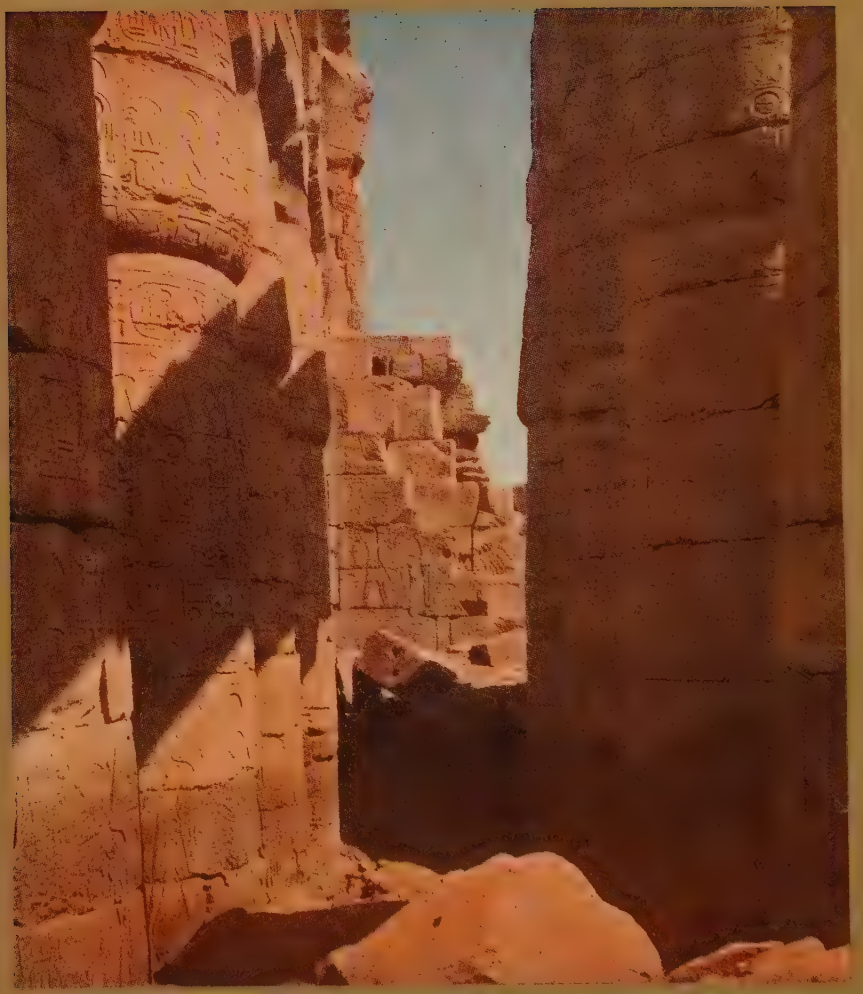
one of the prominent features. Entrance to the temple was gained through a door at the east end, approached by a flight of steps, at the top of which on either side was to be found a pillar with a decorated capital, while between these pillars were hung the leaves of a massive but easily-moved door. Immediately opposite was placed the portal of the temple-building, leading to the sacred shrine, which itself was placed at the other extreme end of the building.

Under different kings, several different designs for temples were adopted; such differences were observed in the pylon (a large rectangular doorway and two high, massive towers built with sides sloping towards a common centre, and forming probably one of the most prominent characteristics of Egyptian temple-buildings); in the open courtyard, furnished with a colonnade, on three sides of which vendors of religious relics drove their trade with the worshippers; in the hypostyle hall, which was entered through the doorway of another pylon, and where were kept animals intended for sacrificial slaughter; and in the shrine, which, cut off from the rest of the temple, was always most zealously guarded and approached only by the high priests and their privileged attendants. That these characteristics formed the chief features of Egyptian temples is proved by the ruins which still remain to us; each sacred edifice must have possessed appurtenances peculiar to itself, such as the Temple of Khons, a good example of an Egyptian sanctuary built under the New Empire (1200–358 B.C.); the smaller temple of Sethos II; and the temple of Rameses III, all of which were dedicated to the same god—Amen.

We learn, for instance, from the careful and scholarly records furnished by Dr. E. A. Wallis-Budge (Keeper of the Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities at the British Museum) that in one temple, that of Luxor, the open court and the remainder of the edifice were connected by means of a long, narrow courtyard, found to be wanting in most temples ; and that at Abydos, because there was no space to build all the various parts of the temple in one straight line, as was customary, the portion containing the sanctuary had been built to the side on one end of it. The same authority mentions that many temples examined by him had been hewn out of the living rock ; of this class were those of Bet-el-Wali—a small one—and Abu-Simbel, in Nubia, just at the entrance to the Sudan, both of which structures are considered to be the finest specimens remaining ; they can be seen quite clearly by passengers on steamers plying on the river.

But there are yet other temples in Nubia and in the Eastern Sudan forming a class by themselves ; and although the original sites are of undoubted antiquity, the greater number of the buildings standing upon them belonged to a later Ptolemaic period, commencing 323 B.C., and continuing until A.D. 42, at which date, following on the deaths of Antony and Cleopatra, Egypt became a Roman province.

The great temple of Luxor, dedicated to Amen, and officially styled "The Throne of the World," was not, however, built upon any single uniform plan ; the structure, with its bewildering beauties and grandeur of conception, seems to have been the outcome of the activity and ingenuity of many successive rulers of



KARNAK: GREAT ENTRANCE HALL

Egypt. A number of different kings, including both Pharaohs and Ptolemies, took some share in adding to or adorning the shrines ; and, according to some authorities, these rulers rivalled each other in the magnitude of their respective designs. All modern writers, moreover, seem to agree that the foundations of this temple must have been laid in the days of the earlier monarchs of the Twelfth Dynasty, that is to say, from 2466 B.C. onwards.

The great ranges of massive columns to be seen at Karnak, and the ruins of that immense structure at Deir-el-Bahri, built by the Queen Hatshepsu (a structure which formed one of the wonders of Egypt even in her days), differed in style from all other temples, and especially from the temples near Thebes. Exploration work has not merely laid bare the site of the Karnak temples, but, as far as was possible and permissible, has restored the ruins to something like the original appearance of the great structures by carefully piecing together all broken portions of columns and elevating them to their former positions, and at the same time removing intrusive Coptic and other alien buildings which had been built within the shadow of the great temples.

Few visitors to Egypt, I take it, will have neglected to see this stupendous ruin, rising terrace above terrace from the plain to the face of the cliff. Thanks to the funds supplied by the King's College Egypt Exploration Fund, sufficient money, at the rate of £1,000 per annum, paid for fourteen years, has been found to restore the festival hall, the curious burial chamber, the corridor with sculptures representing the naval expedition to the incense land of Persil, now known to us as Somaliland—

all of which have been cleared and restored as far as possible. The work, patiently and intelligently performed, occupied ten years. Carried out by Professor Naville, with the assistance of Mr. Howard-Carter, the results have been historically invaluable. It may be remembered that in the summer of 1907 a very remarkable exhibition of some of the contents taken from this edifice were shown by the Egypt Exploration Fund at King's College, and attracted very widespread interest.

Some excellent work has been done by the British School of Archæology of late—particularly during the year 1921. By their efforts have been revealed some five hundred graves of courtiers of the First Dynasty at Abydos, together with many flint and copper tools and ivory objects. The theatre at Oxyrhynkhos has now been planned as well as the long colonnade of that ancient city, while a large quantity of Greek papyri and some of the earliest Hebrew manuscripts known have been discovered, and will now be available for examination.

In connection with these and other priceless discoveries, a warning issued by that eminent authority, Professor W. M. Flinders Petrie, against forgeries is well worthy of attention. He mentions the difficulty attached to detection, even the experienced Egyptologist being occasionally deceived. The University College, Gower Street, has done admirable work of late by organising illustrated lectures, entirely free to those who choose to attend, upon Egyptian subjects and recent excavations, as well as exhibitions where full accounts of all the most important discoveries are given. It is unfortunate that these valuable researches should be hampered by lack of funds, and it would be refreshing to hear of some

PHILÆ—PART OF SUBMERGED PORTION.

PHILÆ—MAIN ENTRANCE TO TEMPLE.

HALL COLUMNS 4,000 YEARS OLD.

rich men who—recognising the worth of the efforts made—would subsidise the undertaking to the extent of several hundred thousand pounds. Such a sum would prove in no way too great for the object in view.

But it must not be supposed that public instruction stops short at the palaces of kings or the dwellings of the peasants of Ancient Egypt. We know now much more about miscellaneous Egyptian buildings, such as the many fortified or fenced cities, which must have been very numerous, with their thick walls, guarded by massive gates, that surrounded them. Ruins of such structures can be seen in more or less good state of preservation at Semneh and El-Kab in Upper Egypt, these remains showing that the Egyptians numbered among them many skilled military architects, who knew well enough how to choose the best site for a fort, and how to convert it into a strongly-resistant station.

The diligent researches conducted by Mr. Summers-Clarke at El-Kab, Deir-el-Bahri and Karnak revealed other curious facts, such, for instance, as the scantiness and insecurity of foundations of columns ; one marvels that temples so constructed should have stood so long and yet have retained a perpendicular position. This has not always proved the case, however, for it will be remembered that, in 1899, no fewer than eleven of the massive pillars at Karnak suddenly fell, owing, it appeared upon expert examination, " to the foundations having been too small in the first place," and " to the inferiority of the material employed " in the second. But this fact came to light only three thousand years afterwards ! The disaster raised a question whether the foundations and columns of other Egyptian temples were equally

faulty; but no satisfactory reply could be made to such an anxious query. Experts have given it as their opinion that we owe the preservation of many Egyptian temples to the immense heaps of fine, hard and consolidated sand and rubbish which have partly, if not wholly, covered up the foundations, thus reinforcing them; they think that it would be fatal to the further security of these edifices were any attempt made to remove such a natural means of protection as the sand affords.

TEMPLE OF KOM OMBO

THE COLOSSI OF MEMNON, NEAR THEBES

CHAPTER V

ELEPHANTINE ISLAND—IMPORTANCE TO EGYPTIANS AND ROMANS—THE NILOMETER—HOW IT FORETOLD PROSPERITY OR FAMINE—READING OF THE GAUGE—SCENIC ATTRACTIVENESS—NOTABLE TEMPLES AND GODS—WASTE OF HUMAN LIFE—HOW THE ISLAND DERIVED ITS NAME—ASSUAN AND ITS GRANITE QUARRIES—RUINS OF SWENET—JUVENAL'S PUNISHMENT—THE SOLAR WONDER OF SIENE—FATE OF ERATOSTHENES.

WHEN Strabo, the Greek geographer, a remarkably learned traveller of his day, visited Egypt (20 B.C.), he seemed to have been particularly impressed by the Island of Elephantine, charmingly situated a little to the north of the first cataract on the Nile, and almost immediately opposite Assuan. This small, but pleasant, island has been famous throughout the ages; it formed the veritable key to Egypt from the south, while it was also the birthplace of most of the Egyptian kings of the Fifth Dynasty. While the Egyptians themselves highly prized the island on account of its sacred associations, the Romans, regarding it as of great strategic importance as forming the southern limit of their new empire, garrisoned it with some of their most trusted veteran troops. Apart from this fact, the island was always found extremely fertile, its vines and fig-trees bearing the reputation of productivity throughout the year.

To most modern visitors the Island of Elephantine is famous through the circumstance that here stood the celebrated construction known as *the* Nilometer, one of

several, however, erected by the ingenious Egyptians for measuring the exact height of the river. The invaluable Strabo has bequeathed to us a very full description of the Nilometer as it was used even in his day ; from this record, set out with great precision, it appears that it was composed of a number of close-fitting stones on which were marked the greatest, least and mean risings of the Nile. " For the water in the well and in the river rises and subsides simultaneously," explains the Greek historian, adding : " Upon the wall of the well are lines which indicated the complete rise of the river and other degrees of its rising." " Those who examine these marks," we also learn, " communicate the result to the public for their information, for it is known long before by these marks and by the time elapsed from the commencement what the future rise of the river will be, and notice is given of it. This information is of service to the husbandmen, with reference to the distribution of the water, and for the purpose of attending to the embankments, canals and other things of this kind. It is of use also to the governors, who fix the revenue ; for the greater the rise of the river the greater it is expected will be the revenue."

As the amount of taxation to be borne by the people has always depended upon the height of the inundation, attempts were formerly made by the governors of Egypt to prove to the people that there never was a low level.

Plutarch, another Greek traveller, but of a later period, has also left us something interesting about the Nilometer at Elephantine. According to this authority, the river once rose to the height of 28 cubits (1 cubit was approximately between 17 and 18 inches) ; while

The Nilometer

Dr. Wallis Budge, a modern writer, relates how a text, found at Edfú, showed that "if the river rose 24 cubits ($3\frac{1}{4}$ hands) at Elephantine, it would water the country satisfactorily."

When the Greeks came to rule in Egypt, they also made use of the Nilometer. On the walls of the staircase leading down to the river are Greek inscriptions of the Imperial epoch, giving the water levels. The scales date from later days, however, and the ells are marked in Greek characters and also in Demotic, a mode of hieroglyphical writing representing the outlines of visible objects or parts of such objects. Nilometers other than those at Elephantine and Edfú were found to have been in use at Philæ, Esneh, Karnak and Roda.

But the Island of Elephantine is interesting for many other things than its Nilometer. The entire southern part is covered with great mounds of rubbish formed by the ancient ruins of the earliest town of Elephantine. Here once must have stood an immense city, containing an extraordinary number of colossal edifices. Buckle, the historian, who collected statistics of early Egyptian labour, was shocked to discover that, in connection with one of them, two thousand men must have been occupied for three years in carrying a single stone from Elephantine to Sais, and that to build one of the pyramids required the labour of no fewer than 360,000 men for twenty years! This wasteful prodigality is cited by the historian of civilisation as a misdirection of labour, only possible in countries of a stationary and conservative spirit in which the upper classes have monopolised power. "These vast edifices," he says, "which inconsiderate observers admire as proof of civilisation, are in reality

evidences of a state of things altogether depraved and unhealthy, a state in which the skill and art of an imperfect refinement injured those whom they ought to have benefited, so that the very resources that the people had created were turned against the people themselves."

This was also to be noted in ancient South America, for, according to Prescott, the erection of the Royal Palace of Peru occupied twenty thousand men for the space of fifty years, while that of Mexico called for the services of no fewer than two hundred thousand men, in both cases, of course, impressed labour being employed. Although this is not the case in connection with the new Imperial Indian city, now being put up at Delhi (commenced eleven years ago to replace Simla, and upon which over £5,000,000—27 lakhs of rupees—have already been expended), it will be impossible, according to Mr. Edmund Candler, ever to finish the city, since no sooner are some of the buildings finished than the foundations "fall back into ruins."

From the higher parts of Elephantine Island a really magnificent view is afforded of the Nile, coursing grandly and noisily through the first cataract with its weirdly piled-up rocks—black and brown, rough and smooth. The wild beauty of the scene appealed to the impressionable Strabo, for in his book XVII, chapter I, he describes for us how—"A little above Elephantine is to be seen the lesser cataract, where the boatmen exhibit a sort of spectacle to the governors. The cataract is in the middle of the river and is formed by a ridge of rocks, the upper part of which is level and thus capable of receiving the river, terminating in a precipice where the water dashes down. On each side, towards the land,

PYRAMIDS OF CHEOPS (KHUFU) AND KHEPHREN (KHAFRE).

FRONT VIEW OF THE SPHINX.

there is a stream up which is the chief ascent for vessels. The boatmen sail up this stream, and, dropping down to the cataracts, are impelled with the boat to the precipice, the crews of the boats escaping unhurt." Thus the observant Greek writer describes the sport known to us as "shooting the rapids," apparently an amusement among visitors as old as Egypt itself.

To Elephantine Island the Egyptians were in the habit of resorting for the purpose of offering up prayer to particular gods, those mostly worshipped being Khnemu, Sati and Sept. Their sanctuaries must, at one time, have covered a considerable area of ground; to-day, however, there is very little left even in the form of ruins. King Amenophis, the third of his name, built here a fine temple, of which some remains are still visible; while from one single stump of a column still standing it seems that the constructor of at least one other temple was no other than Trajan, the Roman Emperor (A.D. 53–117). The beautiful shrine erected by Amenophis was pulled down by vandals in 1822 for the sake of the building-materials it contained, a similar fate having attended the handsome little temple built by Tehutimes III, situated to the north-west of the island. Both of these structures were found *in situ* at the time of the French Expedition to Egypt, certain scholars attached thereto having visited and published views on them.

The name of "Elephantine" acquired by the island is said to have been due to the fact that it was here that the Egyptians first saw the huge African animal of that species. We also learn that at a later period the appellation was restricted to the island and town of Elephantine,

which from days of antiquity had marked the limit of Egyptian political and military power in the direction of Nubia.

Under the ancient empire, the whole district ranked as of great importance, principally on account of the enormous and easily-worked quarries, which yielded that fine coloured granite which all travellers in Egypt have seen hewn into blocks for the great temples and statues, and of which many still exist in more or less complete ruin. Elephantine Island, as can be believed, easily commanded the Nile cataracts, the narrow channels of which allowed of water communication between Egypt and Nubia. From that point also started the great caravan routes leading into the country of the blacks—Nubia, now the Sudan—and along which passed the earliest commercial and industrial expeditions organised by the Egyptians. The ancient capital of this province was named " Elephant-land " (Yebú). The site of the town lay on the south side of the island, but of this to-day nothing remains beyond many great mounds of rubbish.

The history of Elephantine and Assuan are closely associated. Modern Assuan has been built upon the former site of Swenet, lying on the east bank of the Nile. Great heaps of débris near the present railway station are pointed to as all that is left of the ruins of ancient Swenet. Here may have wandered the banished Juvenal, the clever but indiscreet Roman satirist, who, for his biting comments upon the Court of Domitian, was, at an advanced age, banished to this most remote of the Roman frontiers of Empire, cynically appointed to act " Prefect of the Garrison at Siene," a kind of Chiltern Hundreds stewardship.

Abode of Eratosthenes

A famous curiosity of this old garrison-town was a well into which the sun's rays descended perpendicularly, casting no shadow at midday during the summer solstice, thus proving that Siene was situated under the tropic. The report of this circumstance led the learned Athenian, Eratosthenes, Superintendent of the world-famed Alexandrian Library and Museum, to the discovery of the method of measuring the size of the earth's circumference, a method that is still employed. It is sad to think that this great astronomer and scientist was permitted to languish and die by voluntary starvation.

CHAPTER VI

MEMPHIS—EXPLORATION NEGLECTED—GLORIES OF THE FIRST CITY OF EGYPT—IMMENSE TEMPLES—FINEST SCHOOL OF ART—RESCUE OF THE COLOSSAL STATUES OF RAMESES II—VICISSITUDES OF ANCIENT CITY—DESTRUCTION BY THEODOSIUS—THE PYRAMIDS—WHO BUILT THEM?—THE SPHINX—DESTRUCTION BY ARABS.

AMONG the earliest scenes of former Egyptian grandeur usually visited after arrival at Cairo are the site of Memphis and the antiquities at Sakkâra, places known to have been in existence since the days of King Mena, 4400 B.C. Yet upon this unique ground little or nothing like the amount of excavation has taken place that can be traced in other parts of Egypt. Who can doubt, however, that among all the enterprises of archæological research this region might prove one of the richest in discoveries?

For some reason unexplained, unless it be that of want of funds, Memphis (one of the most famous capitals of the Old World, and once the capital of Egypt itself), where Mena, the first historical king, built his palace, has been abandoned hitherto to its ruins.

Some fifteen years ago the British School of Archæology offered to undertake the task; but, like other British research enterprise, it had to look to outside sources for assistance, since no Government aid was forthcoming. Such a policy was quite unlike that of the French Government, which had found the funds to explore the ruins of Delphi, as had the German

THE ISLAND OF ELEPHANTINE

Administration, which rendered similar assistance for the exploration of ancient Olympia in Greece. It is estimated that at Memphis an area of no less than 100 acres occupied by the ruins—equal to the whole of the site of Karnak in Upper Egypt—could be cleared, but that this would require diligent work over a period of many years. The cost is put at £3,000 annually for fifteen or twenty years, while the greater scope of completely clearing the ancient capital would require an outlay of more than half a million sterling.

Who can doubt that beneath that enormous mound of rubbish, the accumulation of centuries, much valuable material still lie? We know something through authenticated historical records of the former splendour of the city's four great temples, even in the days of their decadence; for has not the Greek writer Herodotus told us much concerning them? He passed many years (490–420 B.C.) travelling in Egypt, Babylon and Greece, and thus his descriptions—if not always reliable—are vividly interesting, and, so far as his own times are in question, of great historical value. The sites of the temples mentioned by Herodotus lie plainly revealed yet amidst the ruins of the city, and it is believed that there should be little difficulty in uncovering them and tracing further their long and eventful history dating many thousand years ago. Indeed, the history of Memphis extends over the whole course of Egyptian civilisation. The city, which reached a height of splendour excelled by no other in the world, contained the finest school of Egyptian art, while its actual wealth stood unrivalled. The vast temple of Ptah, the temple of Isis, the sacred dwelling of the sacred Apis, the rich temple of Aphrodite

in the Venetian and foreign quarter—all these once adorned the city, and were written of in terms of enthusiasm even in the Greek age.

The colossal dimensions of the Memphis temples and their adornments may be gauged from the size of one statue alone, the mammoth figure of Rameses II, discovered in 1820 by the two explorers Caviglia and Sloane, and magnanimously presented by them to the British Museum. For many years this giant stone figure lay prone near the road leading from Bedrashen to Mit-Rahineh (a district formerly containing the most important quarters and buildings of the city of Memphis), covered by the annual deposits of Nile mud ; but thanks to the devotion of Sir Frederick Stephenson, who collected a sum of money in Cairo for the purpose, the great statue was eventually lifted from out the hollow into which it had lain neglected, and, perhaps, even unsuspected, for thousands of years, the exceedingly difficult engineering feat being carried out by Colonel Arthur Bagnolde, R.E.

This statue, like dozens of others of which it formed but one, is carved out of the finest hard limestone, and measures 42 feet in height. The original erect position assigned to it was in front of the temple of Ptah, the most celebrated building in Memphis—indeed, in the whole of Egypt—founded by King Mena and mentioned enthusiastically by both Herodotus and Diodorus. A second, but smaller, colossus of the same Pharaoh (Rameses II was very much given to erecting statues of himself) still lies close by on its back on a slight eminence. In order to see it to advantage it is necessary for the visitor to climb on to the massive breast, and

THE SPHINX UNDER THE STARS.

PYRAMID OF SAKKARA.

A CLOSER VIEW OF THE GREAT SPHINX, THE MOST FAMOUS MONUMENT IN THE WORLD.

walk along the full length of the body and on to the face. The length of this colossus is 25 feet, excluding the double Egyptian crown at the head, which, by itself, measures 6½ feet in length, making the whole 31 feet 6 inches, or only about 11 feet shorter than the stupendous statue above referred to.

The city of Memphis was originally formed of three sections or quarters, the more important of which were those situated within the White Wall, called, in later times, the Citadel; the South Wall, with the famous temple of Ptah referred to; and the House of the Spirit of Ptah. The modern villages of Bedrashen, Mit-Rahineh and Kasriyeh probably cover the former outlying quarters of once-magnificent Memphis. The city's streets must have been rather narrow, while the majority of the houses were built (as was the custom in those days, except in the case of royal palaces and temples constructed of stone) of Nile-mud made into bricks. The same abundant material is used in Egypt to this day and for the same purpose of house construction. The original stones of superior edifices and of many of the temples have long since disappeared, having been carried away by vandal Muhammedans to build other structures on the right bank of the Nile.

The decline of Memphis as a city of pomp and splendour seems to have commenced simultaneously with the elevation of Thebes and of its selection as the political centre of Egypt; but even in the time of the Twentieth Dynasty, that is to say 1200 to 1133 B.C., synchronising with the reigns of Rameses III and IV, Memphis still retained some of its religious importance, on account of containing the celebrated Temple of Ptah, the largest

but two of such structures in the whole land of Egypt. The city was attacked, captured and regained on numerous occasions, now by the Ethiopian Piankhy, then by the Assyrians more than once; again by Cambyses, the cruel king of the Persian Dynasty; but even after the foundation of Alexandria, and during the reign of Augustus, Memphis remained a large and populous city, notwithstanding the state of ruin to which many of its finest edifices had been reduced. The greatest destruction perpetrated there was carried out by Christians under the order of the Byzantine Emperor Theodosius (A.D. 346–395), miscalled "the Great." And so through the ages Memphis was left to sink into a glorious ruin; never, however, can its widespreading grave fail to excite the wonder and veneration of even the most casual and indifferent of visitors, nor to excite in their minds something of the admiration expressed by Abdellatif, who, at the end of the twelfth century, after spending several days of rapt contemplation and exploration on the site of Memphis's former magnificence, declared that "the ruins contained still a profusion of wonders which bewildered the mind and baffled all description." Probably Abdellatif was one of the last of those privileged to see Memphis in its still great, if shattered, glory.

It is not a little remarkable that while members of many foreign nations, awed and impressed by the wonder of the Gizeh pyramids and the Sphinx, have devoted time, money and interest to preserving, or, at least, to studying these colossal monuments of old Egypt, the Muhammedans, the real owners of the country, gave no less attention to and bestowed no less energy upon destroying them. Men like Shaw, Pococke, Davison, Bruce, Wilkinson, Howard Vyse, Persing and Petrie,

among the British ; Niebuhr and Lepsius, among the Germans ; Caviglia and Belsoni, among the Italians, and Jamard, Champollion and Mariette among the French, looked upon the pyramids as among the most impressive things of the world. The barbarian Muhammedan ruler of Egypt, Malik-el-Kamil, made a mad attempt to destroy them, and actually succeeded in stripping from its base the outer covering of one side of the Pyramid of Mycerinus, while the once beautifully-sculptured face of the Sphinx, originally coloured red and otherwise decorated, was wantonly made a target by the vandals.

But strive and labour as they could, their puny efforts could effect little but defacement and exterior damage to these stupendous monuments ; they stand still, as they will probably stand for ever, as firmly and immovably upon their foundations of living rock as when hundreds of thousands of human slave-hands hewed and carved their stones at the cost of how much physical suffering and heart-breaking toil no one will ever know !

The two most cruel and relentless of the pyramid builders—the brothers Cheops and Chephren, who raised the huge structures called after their names—occupied the entire period of their reigns—enduring fifty years in the one case, and fifty-six in the other—in unceasing work upon the building of their destined sepulchres. Who created the Sphinx, no historian has told us ; Herodotus has recorded that it had already been many hundreds of years in existence in the days of Cheops ; but modern authorities are of opinion that it was fashioned—at least in part—during the reign of Ra-Hamarchis, who caused it to be carved from the living rock in his own image in times so remote as to possess no chronological definition.

CHAPTER VII

CAIRO—EUROPEAN QUARTER—MODERN STREET INCONGRUITIES—WHEN TO SEE THE OLD CITY—THE BAZAARS—NATIVE QUARTERS—RELICS OF FORMER GRANDEUR—HOTEL LIFE—WAR EXPERIENCES—MUSEUM ATTRACTIONS—PALACE OF GIZEH—ALONE WITH A DEAD CIVILISATION—DEBT TO EGYPTOLOGISTS—EARLY DWELLINGS—RELICS FROM ABYDOS.

FEW visitors ever think of the scenic effects that they miss in Cairo by neglecting to see its older streets, bazaars and native surroundings just about sunrise. Then the exquisite colourings, the lights and shades and the quiet charm of the river's life can best be realised. At that hour, the city, with its teeming cosmopolitan population of over six hundred thousand, holds, perhaps, more fascination than any other city or town in Africa.

There is little especially attractive to the eye about Cairo's European quarter; it greatly resembles Paris and a dozen other handsome Continental towns and cities, with their long streets and boulevards, tall, straight stucco edifices, well-filled shops, enormous blocks of residential flats, with their monotonous rows of green window-shutters and balconies of pretentious ornamental ironwork, and modern chimney-pots. Ugly—if useful—electrical tramcars lumber by at all hours of the day and night, obliterating all notions of Orientalism, while bringing from the West to the East the same strenuous mode of living. Of hotels there is a wide choice; few

RUINED TEMPLE AT MEDAMUT

are possessed of gardens, since building-land in Cairo has become expensive.

There is something almost offensively anomalous in meeting in the crowded and dusty thoroughfares of this Eastern city, side by side and jostling one another rudely for priority of place, the Egyptian flat-car, with its load of black-robed, yashmak-ked women ; the clanging modern tramcar or heavily-laden motor-lorry ; the smartly-horsed carriage belonging to some Egyptian notable, and even the stately—if lumbering—camel—all sweeping onwards in two opposite directions—to the Nile or away from it, for the river forms the very life-centre of the city, more so, perhaps, than in any other capital of the world.

How old is Cairo ? Probably its foundations date back three thousand five hundred years, for the modern city occupies the site of ancient Masr, Misri, or Misrain, and is spoken of by such historians as Deodorus and Ctesias, as well as by certain chroniclers of the days of the Persian King Cambyses. Among the more characteristic features of old Cairo are the great length and picturesque irregularity of the thoroughfares ; the varying height, colouring and embellishment of the thousand and one different buildings ; the number and richness of their casements, their ponderous portals, thickly studded with nails ; and the inhabitants performing the more ordinary functions of daily life openly and unrestrictedly in the public thoroughfares. Among the dwellings are many that were once prized but now are abandoned by their original owners and given over as tenements to the lower and poorer classes of the population ; their one-time costly and scrupulously-preserved

carvings and mural decorations have been left to ruin and decay; priceless tessellated pavements, now sadly cracked, broken or displaced, may still be found. Lofty doorways of imposing dimensions, and formerly elaborately ornamented by carvings and iron scroll-work, are now chipped and neglected; while from upper windows the fine casements have become broken or rotted, or removed entirely, the framework and leaded glass having been sold at rubbish prices to curio-hunters.

Egypt, like India, was for long the happy hunting-ground of irresponsible and unconscionable relic-hunters. Until the Viceroyalty of Viscount (now Marquis) Curzon, and the establishment under his direction of the Archæological Department with its own Director-General, enormous damage was being done to old monuments and temples, such as those in the Ajunta and Ellora Caves, which have been cut in the living rocks by generations of patient and skilful Buddhists and Jains. Priceless statues and exquisite paintings, not altogether dissimilar in idea and execution to those found in old temples and tombs in Egypt, had been ruthlessly cut and defaced by vandal hands, just as many pyramid burial-places of the Pharaohs had been desecrated by Arab pilferers. Anyone who knows India and Egypt may find many striking similarities in their respective temple-buildings and burial-places, a circumstance not accounted for entirely by the fact that Alexander the Great invaded India in the course of his world-triumphs. Indeed, many of the most remarkable examples of resemblance between Egyptian and Indian temple structures, carving and mural decorations, date several centuries before the period of Alexander, their sites ranking, for

WHERE THE CATARACTS BEGIN.

MEDITATION NEAR ASSUAN.

THE LAST STILL WATER REACH.

historic value, with those of the supposedly more ancient civilisation of Egypt.

If Cairo Society fails to realise Emerson's ideal—"A troop of thinkers among whom best heads take best places"—it certainly offers as many features of interest as are to be found in most other fashionable resorts abroad. The visitor's reception depends here as much upon his coat as upon his credentials, and mediocrity has small chance of success.

During the war Cairo suffered greatly. The once-gay city became closed to all but those who were privileged to don khaki, and hotels, which, during the season, had known the joy of turning away streams of would-be visitors, were either appropriated by the military authorities, given over to hospital requirements, or became tenanted by unremunerative officers and their apportionment of female appendages. Here, as elsewhere all through the war, a certain class of Englishwoman made herself a nuisance by her persistence in coming to Egypt, and monopolising accommodation sadly needed for other purposes. Only when the High Commissioner (General Sir F. Reginald Wingate) determined that no more landing permits should be given to women tourists under any pretext whatever—and as few as possible to men who failed to prove some direct connection with the military operations, or imperative personal business affairs—was the scandal brought to an end. When the Irish Guards left England in April, 1922, for Turkey, the military authorities, profiting by their experiences in Egypt, permitted neither officers nor men to be accompanied by their wives.

As for the rank-and-file of "soldier-boys" who went

out to Egypt, their experiences proved very different to those of the ordinary tourist. Instead of finding accommodation—as they had no doubt expected—in luxurious hotels, they were encamped with the less fortunate of their officers on the bare desert. Others, to their disappointment, found themselves quartered in small tents at inland and—except to some Egyptians—almost unknown towns, there to grill in the burning sun by day and to shiver in the cold wind by night. To some, the first experience of the blinding glare of an African sun on the dead-white sand of the desert proved intolerable ; others appeared to regard it with indifference, rarely availing themselves even of the tinted glasses served out to mitigate the adverse effects.

If their desert experience endowed the new-comers with a unique knowledge of Egyptian geography and climate, it afforded few consolations in the form of amusements, sports or means of comfortable living. On the other hand, Egypt's visitors left as a legacy to the native dwellers a rich vocabulary of slang expressions, garnered largely from the mouths of Australian "Tommies" and the music-halls of London—silly, and generally profane, imprecations that remain to this day on the lips of the natives and will not for generations fade from their too-retentive memories.

It is always possible to get away from the noise and bustle, the dust and heat of Cairo's crowded thoroughfares and retire to the grateful coolness and comparative solitude of the Gizeh Museum, there to indulge in reveries—with few but the watchful, though never intrusive, custodians to interfere ; to ruminate undisturbed over the past glories of wonderful, mysterious old Egypt !

MOSQUE AT MEDAMUT (SUBURB OF THEBES)

Gizeh

The Gizeh Museum, with its almost bewildering collection of relics of the dead centuries, serves to again conjure up for us some of that land's former marvels and fascinations. These mummies, wonderfully preserved in their manifold wrappings, almost as fresh as on the day that the bodies they enclose were committed to their sepulchres ; these pathetic vestiges of a once powerful race, ruling over a long-vanished empire ! These remains of once-superb statues and colossal monuments, designed and carved with a patience and a skill unexcelled by human hands, dust these thousands of years ! These accurately-arranged and annotated collections of coins and tokens of an ancient but never-to-be-forgotten civilisation.

With these relics before one's eyes, something—but only something—of a strange and wondrous people, of their astonishing art—shown so clearly in their great shattered temples— ; of their loves and hates ; their fears and hopes ; their strange religious practices ; their perpetual wars and punishments, may be called to mind. To the real Egyptologist the rooms of the Palace of Gizeh, unsuitable as the building admittedly is for the adequate display of priceless relics of a great and early civilisation such as has there been got together (mainly through the long and continued efforts of the scholarly Mariette Bey), possess a power of attraction unmatched in any other land of interest or diversion. Rome, Greece, Carthage, Babylon and Persia have all contributed valuable relics to posterity, and it is possible to learn much of value from the peoples who once lived on the banks of the Euphrates and the Tigris ; but to no ancient civilisation do we owe so much as to that of

the Egyptians who dwelt on the Nile. Thanks to their patient industry and thoroughness in the preservation of records, we are enabled to reconstruct not only much of their own history but that of other contemporary nations ; their dumb yet eloquent bequests in the form of tablets, stelæ, sculptures and papyrus serve to correct many of the exaggerations and misdescriptions of the historians Strabo, Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus.

The discoveries made during the past twenty years alone must inevitably give a great stimulus to the study of Egyptology ; and now that the opportunity has again been afforded for pursuing these researches, we may feel confident that from day to day will be brought to light other precious relics which will add to our already extensive knowledge of the manners and customs, the language and literature of a people who were contemporary with personages of the Old Testament. Many of our Universities, like those of Liverpool and London, are rendering valuable service in this direction. No scientist living has conducted excavations of greater value than Professor Flinders Petrie, in conjunction with whose remarkable discoveries should be mentioned the researches of such eminent Egyptologists as Professor Naville, Mr. Howard-Carter, Sir Arthur Evans, Professor J. Garstang, Mr. R. E. Ayrton, Mr. Summers-Clarke, among others connected with various scientific research societies and schools of archæology.

Not alone does the museum at Gizeh render unrivalled facilities for study, but several European institutions enable one to gather something more than a bare idea of what Ancient Egypt, in all its pristine glory, must have been. With their aid, besides gaining an intimate

knowledge of the lives and pursuits of the upper and ruling classes, we are able to trace, with a remarkable degree of accuracy, the evolution of the living places of the common people of Egypt. "In other countries," wrote Herodotus, "the dwellings of men are separated from those of beasts; in Egypt, men and beasts live together." (The old Greek historian had no knowledge of the Irish?) The earliest type of dwelling seems to have been merely a shelter of reed-matting, supported on poles like Bedouin tents; but in course of time a boundary-wall and a parapet were added, together with a primitive staircase built to reach the roof, upon which, there is little doubt, the tenants must have slept in hot weather. Then was joined to the portico a hut which gradually developed into an inner chamber, while to some of the earlier edifices a store-room was added. The best examples of these structures unearthed display houses of two stories with *mulgafs*, or openings, made under the roof to allow full play to the cool north wind. In some of the residences uncovered there still remain relics of domestic furniture such as a couch, a head-rest or a stand of water-jars, placed in a cool corner; while on the roof may be traced the remains of a grain-bin with divisions, each provided with a sliding door. Yet, again, objects such as workmens' tools, hammers, nails, chisels and paint-brushes have been brought to light, together with numerous specimens of some beautiful glazed ware employed especially as votive offerings to the Goddess Hathor, the Lady of Amenta and Goddess of Hunting, the wife of Atmu; while frequently have come to light samples of a curious textile work, including painted pieces of linen with figures of a whole family and others

with coloured beads interwoven, not merely sewn on. There are also tracings of mens' sandals, with their names scratched in the middle. Most of these valuable relics of ancient Egypt have been garnered from the ruins of Abydos. But other antiquities from the large cemeteries at Rifeh, in Upper Egypt, near Assiut, are no less fascinating to the student or casual visitor.

During the war, the work of excavation in the Nile valley practically ceased; but it has been resumed since. Dr. George Reisner, in Nubia, representing American interests, was alone enabled to remain in the country and carry on his valuable work, comprising the clearing of the pyramids and temples of the kings and including a remarkable discovery of the burial of the great governor Hepzefa, of the 12th Dynasty. At Dendara, American work has also proceeded upon the great field of Thebes, where many new tombs have been unearthed. In the Wadi Tumilat and Kantara, the French Egyptologist, M. Cledat, continues his search among Greek and Roman remains in the Delta; the British School of Archæology has resumed work at Lahun, where in 1914 took place a great discovery of jewellery; the Exploration Society has resumed operations (abandoned by the Germans) at Tell-el-Amarna; while the Italians, still as always working secretly, but, it is believed, successfully, have been excavating at Gebelyn.

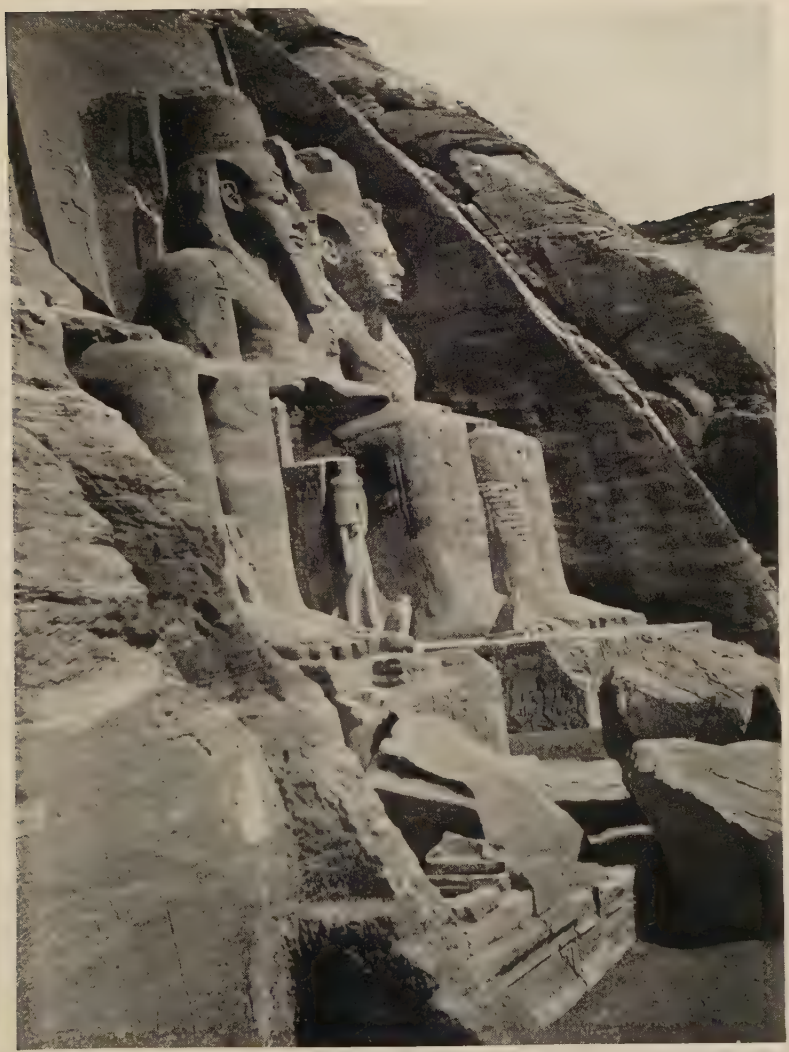


Photo by] [*Mr. Leo Weithnal, O.B.E., F.R.G.S.*

FAÇADE OF THE GREAT ROCK TEMPLE AT ABU SIMBEL, NUBIA, AS CLEARED FROM THE SANDS OF THE DESERT.

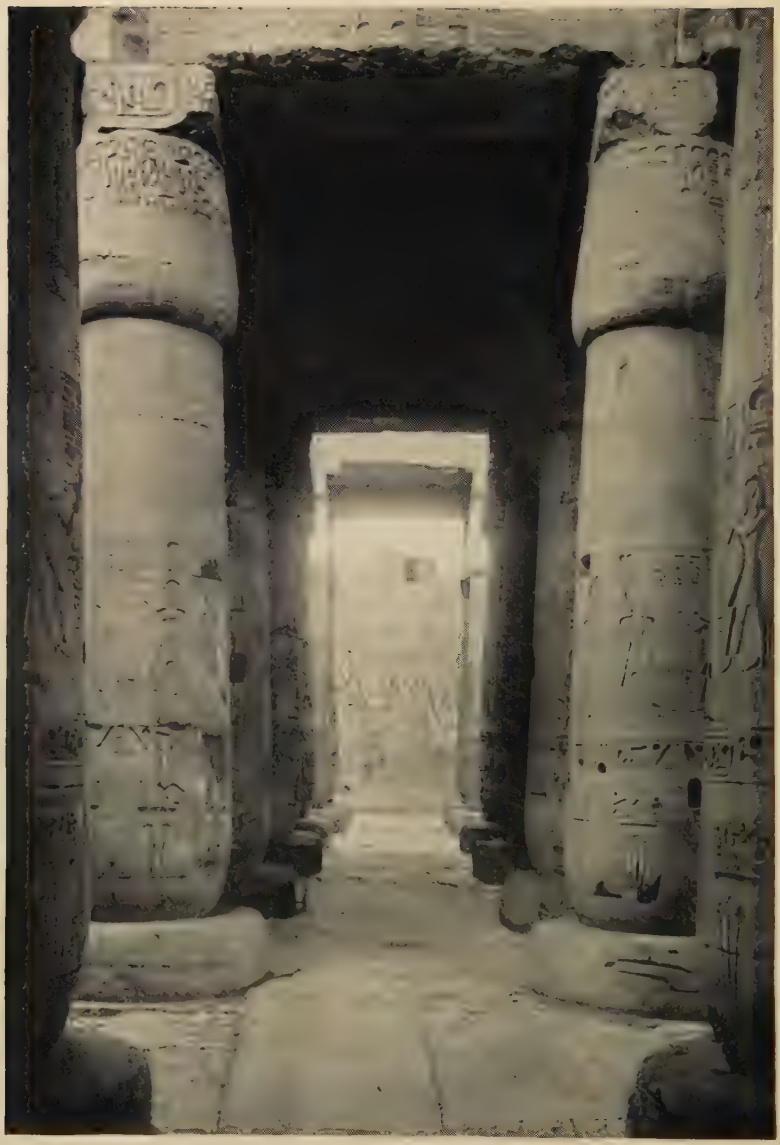


Photo by [*Mr. Leo Weinthal, O.B.E., F.R.G.S.*

RESTORED ENTRANCE TO GREAT TEMPLE OF AMMON AT KARNAK.

CHAPTER VIII

PORT SAID—INCEPTION AND CREATION—M. DE LESSEPS AND HIS SCHEME—BRITISH OPPOSITION TO PROJECT AND SUBSEQUENT REGRETS—ENGINEERING DIFFICULTIES OVERCOME—FIRST GLIMPSE OF PORT SAID—STREETS, HOUSES AND INHABITANTS—THE BAD OLD DAYS—MODERN PURIFICATION—EXCURSION ATTRACTIONS—PHYSICAL FEATURES OF CANAL—BRITISH SHARE-HOLDING AND CONTROL—TONNAGE NATIONALITY—A VISIT TO SUEZ.

A LITTLE more than fifty years ago Port Said existed merely as a small and poverty-stricken native fishing village. The present busy town and port are the outcome of the construction of the Canal of Suez and the chief town of the Egyptian Province of the Isthmus. It owes its inception, as well as much of its actual construction, to the splendid enterprise of the late Vicomte Ferdinand de Lesseps—referred to still as "M. de Lesseps," as if, indeed, he were living—the distinguished French diplomat and cousin of the Empress Eugénie, who, when in the Consular Service at Alexandria, conceived the idea of this wonderful waterway. It was not until some years afterwards, namely in 1854, following his military service at Tunis, Madrid and Cairo, that he commenced actual preparations upon the Suez Canal scheme. Further progress could not be made, however, on account of the bitter opposition offered by the British Government (under Lord Palmerston) as well as by many engineers, who mocked at the scheme and denied its feasibility; but in 1860 the Frenchman triumphed, the scheme was commenced, and, after nine years of patient labour, completed.

It is only fair to record that, recognising at last the splendid services rendered to sea-borne trade by the project, the British Government made more than amends for its fractious opposition in previous years by recommending the Sovereign to confer upon M. de Lesseps the honour of an English knighthood. With his forgiving and amiable nature, M. de Lesseps graciously accepted it.

The canal without a suitable port would have been an anomaly, and consequently the construction of a harbour was resolved upon and at once named Port Said, in honour of the fourth son of the great reformer, Muhammed Ali, whom he had succeeded as Pasha of Egypt. Port Said stands on the island which forms part of the narrow tract of land separating the Lake Menzaleh from the Mediterranean. Immense difficulties attended the construction of the port, which, occupying an area of 580 acres, has been excavated to a depth of 26 feet. Dredging of a laborious nature was carried on for many months; and in the end engineering skill triumphed. The original plans were altered from time to time as experience dictated, a considerable departure from the scheme, as originally outlined by M. de Lesseps in 1854, being decided upon. The harbour is protected by two massive piers, the eastern arm running out into the sea towards the north for a distance of one English mile; while the western arm inclines towards the north-east for a little over one and a-half miles; a portion only of this construction had been completed in the days of the designer. The breakwater on the west is lengthened yearly to protect the harbour from the mud-carrying current, which, flowing always from the Nile,

would soon block up the canal but for the breakwater. This forms a danger affecting all harbours at the eastern end of the Delta close to the Red Sea, owing to a current in the Mediterranean, beginning at the Straits of Gibraltar, which washes the whole length of the North African coast. Where they start from the land, the two piers are 1,440 yards apart, but their extremities approach to within 770 yards of each other, the navigable entrance, marked by electrically-lighted buoys, being between 100 and 160 yards in width.

Nothing is seen of Port Said by the approaching sea-traveller until his vessel arrives close to the land; but long before this happens the tall column of the concrete-constructed lighthouse, 165 feet in height, is observed, or, if at night, its powerful beam of light can be seen streaming across the sea at a distance of 24 miles. The lighthouse is one of the largest and most powerful in the world.

At one period Port Said was regarded as the " wickedest spot on earth "—a combined Sodom and Gomorrah, a sink of iniquity wherein could be found congregated some of the most vicious and most abandoned specimens of the human race. Its reputation was well earned. The port was also said to be one of the few places in the world where all Eastern travellers could be certain to meet, at some time or other, during the journey out or home.

Vast improvements were introduced at Port Said dating from the days of the British occupation of Egypt, not only in regard to the sanitary conditions of the town itself, but in respect to the safety of travellers who might be compelled, or were wishful, to land there. The

undignified squabbles and fierce fights that formerly occurred on all hands immediately the foreigner landed, besieged by a host of disorderly natives offering to act as "guides" to the town, speedily became an evil of the past. Boatmen are no longer in a position to rob and hold up to blackmail the inexperienced and nervous passenger landed from some calling steamer. Each ferryman is now licensed, and officially approved tariffs are conspicuously displayed at the landing-places printed in both English and Arabic; any dispute arising can be referred to one or other of the Egyptian policemen on duty (British police were also at one time present), while other officers exercise the strictest vigilance over the conduct of the natives and the safety of transient visitors. Neither are the local hotel-managers permitted any longer to fleece the stranger within their gates.

The native quarter, built apart from the European section, has been purged and purified almost beyond recognition; a modern system of sanitation, inaugurated by the late Lord Kitchener upon the same lines as installations at Cairo and Alexandria, has been imposed; but it is to be feared that the lower districts still contain many pestilential hovels as well as gambling-houses and other haunts of vice. To find these, however, one has to make a diligent search; a certain element among foreign visitors seem to make it their first business to seek out and visit these easily-avoided quarters, and for whatever evil consequences may befall them they themselves are alone to blame.

Port Said as a place of residence and temporary sojourn is even now undergoing a strange and welcome transformation. To those who knew it, say, in 1890

ROCK BEARING PREHISTORIC HIEROGLYPHICS

—an unspeakably filthy, noisy, disease- and vice-infected town—the European quarter has become already almost unrecognisable in its modern cleanliness, orderly arrangement and comparative quietude. In a year or so more additional buildings of an attractive character will have enriched it ; these are going up at the rate of ten every month. New churches for many persuasions, arguing increased godliness (never very pronounced) among the mixed inhabitants, are under construction ; but, above all, a fine and commodious edifice destined to house some hundreds of the Suez Canal Company's employees, with members of their families, is about completed. It will outshine in splendour even the handsome office-building of the company, which is the first land-mark to attract the eye of the traveller approaching Port Said from the sea. With its new shady avenues of bright green trees, ornamental flower-beds and many white buildings glittering in the African sun, Port Said will have become what at one time seemed almost impossible —a beautiful semi-Oriental city.

It is possible to see and enjoy a visit to Port Said to-day as one could not have done ten years ago. The town has now something over 75,000 inhabitants, of whom one-third may be classed as Europeans. The population, however, is thoroughly cosmopolitan, and to a large extent transitory. In the main streets, of which there are several, shops not unworthy of European cities display vast collections of goods attractive to the eye of the tourist, and among the array may be found from time to time genuine bargains in curios from China and Japan, while veritable Egyptian antiquities, in the form of scarabs, beads and other ornaments,

may be secured by those who are fortunate enough to be connoisseurs.

In other respects the visitor, if he has sufficient time (and his stay on shore does not usually exceed three or four hours), may indulge in a number of excursions by steamer or launch as far as Lake Menzaleh, Mataria and Damietta. For those who are enabled to remain several days or longer at Port Said, there are available the museums and certain pastimes dear to the Englishman and Englishwoman—such as cricket, football and tennis, organised by the International Sporting Club ; a nine-hole golf links and an international rowing-club are among Port Said's other assets.

Just as Port Said was originally dependent upon Suez, so was Suez dependent upon Port Said for existence. Both towns sprang up simultaneously during the years of construction carried out at the canal, which was opened to traffic in 1869. Previous to that, Suez, also like Port Said, was an insignificant village with but a few hundred inhabitants. M. de Lesseps' idea of cutting a canal across the neck of land joining Asia to Africa, nearly one hundred miles in width and known geographically as the Isthmus of Suez, although bold, was not altogether original. As far back as the time of Rameses II, or at even an earlier period, a canal, well fortified, had been cut between Pelusium and Lake Timsah ; the construction, at the same time, acted as a water barrier against the hordes of Asiatics who continually strove to invade Egypt. And the canal served yet another purpose, for it afforded a means of transport for troops from one strategic point to another. In later days it was known by the name of Kantara, the Arabic term for " a bridge."

The Canal

Successors to Rameses, including Nekan (690 B.C.), who attempted to make a canal at Bubastis, between the Nile and the Red Sea, but never completed it; Darius, who carried on the work; Ptolemy Philadelphus, who made for it a lock; and the Emperor Trajan, who built a canal from Cairo to the Red Sea, all entertained similar projects. In the Middle Ages attempts were made at different times to cut a canal across the Isthmus, while even Napoleon Bonaparte saw the advantage of such a project, and ordered Lepère, one of his most expert engineers, to survey the route of a waterway across the neck of land. Lepère, however, reported to his Imperial Master that the difference between the levels of the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, being as much as 33 feet, rendered such a scheme impossible. In this view he seems to have been supported by certain classical writers such as Aristotle, Diodorus and Strabo. Lepère's definite pronouncement, however, was contested, and successfully proved, in 1846, to have been altogether incorrect. It was found by one Linant Bey, another French engineer, that a canal was quite possible; and, encouraged by this conviction, M. de Lesseps studied the question anew, prepared plans for such a construction, and then, in 1854, laid them before Said Pasha. The latter, after some hesitation, granted a concession, and there was a further confirmation in 1866, when a company, with a capital of 200,000,000 francs, was formed to carry the daring project to completion.

According to M. de Lesseps' original plan, the canal was to have been built from Suez to Pelusium; that idea was afterwards modified, however, since it was found possible, by bringing the northern end into the

Mediterranean at Port Said, to dispense with the lock at each end, which would have been necessary had the canal embouched at Pelusium. The cost of the canal up to the end of 1869 had been £19,000,000.

At that time the width was 72 feet, and the depth about 26 feet 2 inches. In 1870, the maximum permissible draught of ships using the canal was 24 feet 4 inches; in 1890, ships drawing 25 feet 4 inches could make the passage; and during the following twenty-four years the increase in depth had been at the average rate of about 1 foot every six years, thus bringing the maximum draught authorised up to 29 feet. It was not until June, 1913, that the width, at a depth of 32 feet 8 inches, was increased to a minimum of 147 feet 8 inches, over a length of about 85 miles, and to a width of 328 feet over a distance of about 20 miles. In 1914 a further scheme of improvements was adopted on the recommendation of the International Consultative Committee of Works, the British representatives on which were Sir William Matthews and Mr. Anthony Lister. This scheme made provision for a depth of 30 feet throughout; for widening up to 196 feet 8 inches in the southern section, and for the cutting of an appropriate number of sidings in the north and central sections, where the minimum width of 147 feet 8 inches was believed to be sufficient for shipping requirements, even for the leviathans yet possible.

To-day, the canal has a depth of 30 feet, and a width of 147 feet 8 inches, while the cost to date has been £30,525,000. The British holding of Canal securities amounts to 176,602 of the total of 400,000 shares, which cost originally £4,000,000, but to-day exceed in value

THE COURSE OF THE NILE: VIEW FROM A HEIGHT.

IN PLACID WATERS.

NATIVE CRAFT.

FOUNDATIONS OF A VANISHED TEMPLE.

£24,000,000. The shares carry ten votes at meetings of shareholders called to appoint directors and to decide the policy of the company; as, according to the terms of the concession, a vote is allowed for every twenty-five shares, but with ten as minimum, it is clear that Great Britain is enabled to exercise control over a concern in which it actually owns less than one-half of the ordinary stock.

The gross tonnage passing through the Suez Canal during 1921 reached the remarkable total of 24,955,832 tons, while transit receipts amounted to 149,251,267 francs. As a matter of fact, however, the number of vessels was fewer, being 3,975, as compared to 4,009 in 1920, and 4,802 in 1914. British ships were again predominant, numbering 2,418 of a gross tonnage of 15,689,598. Among British steamers, those belonging to the P. & O. Company accounted for 1,123,000 tons; those of the British India Company for 671,000 tons; and those of Edward Hain and Mercantile Steamers, 336,000 tons; the various Ellerman Lines (the Hall, the City, the Bucknall, the Wilson, and the Graham Smith) accounted for 1,311,000 tons, while among other notable tonnage totals were Alfred Holt & Company (Ocean Steamship) and China Mutual, 1,183,000 tons, and British Government vessels, 933,000 tons. The passage through the Canal has now been expedited, the mean duration for all vessels being fifteen hours twenty-five minutes.

Few visitors calling at Port Said *en route* to the East are afforded the opportunity of visiting the town of Suez, owing to the short amount of time at their disposal. But the majority of those who have enjoyed the privilege

of staying-off have little to regret. At the same time, one sojourn at Suez—and that not exceeding a few hours—generally suffices for a life-time. The town lies at the head of the gulf of that name, one of the northern extremities of the Red Sea, and to the south-west of the mouth of the Canal. Formerly a miserable Arabian village with 1,500 inhabitants at most, Suez to-day boasts of a population of over 15,000. In view of the restriction upon its trade, partly as a consequence of the war and partly owing to the general decline in the world's affairs, one wonders what these people find to do and how they earn their livelihood.

ONE OF PHARAOH'S BRIDGES

SEHEL, ON THE ROAD TO NUBIA

CHAPTER IX

ALEXANDRIA—ITS FOUNDER—THE HISTORIC PRINCE OF MACEDONIA DIES YOUNG—IMPORTANCE OF TOWN IN GREEK AND ROMAN DAYS—GATHERING OF WORLD'S DISTINGUISHED MEN—THE FAMOUS LIBRARY AND MUSEUM—DESTRUCTION OF PRICELESS DOCUMENTS—JULIUS CÆSAR'S VANDALISM—POMPEY'S PILLAR—ALEXANDRIA UNDER THE OTTOMANS—HARBOUR IMPROVEMENTS—AN ORIENTAL CITY NO LONGER—MODERN STREET NOMENCLATURE—UTILITY OF PORT DURING THE WAR.

HAD Alexander the Great, the celebrated Prince of Macedon, lived beyond the brief period of three-and-thirty years, there is no saying what he might have done with, and for, the seaport and town that he had founded on the isthmus opposite the Island of Pharos. After the fall of Gaza, he had found the road to Egypt open to him and his triumphant troops, who took possession without opposition. This brilliant and successful son of Phillip II, of Macedonia, and of Olympias, a sister of Alexander I, of Epirus, was only twenty-two years of age when he landed on the coast of Egypt, and shortly afterwards he utterly destroyed the sea-power of the Persians and defeated their King, Darius III, first at Issus and afterwards at Arbela. During the following ten years, in which he made himself master of Western Asia, Alexander had little opportunity for settling down as an architect or civiliser. His programme of conquest was too full, and in the thirty-third year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign, he died, sad to say, from the effects of his debauchery. But the

new city which bore his name grew gradually into a great intellectual and commercial centre, and throughout the following centuries, as still to-day, it formed for his fame an enduring monument.

It is hardly surprising that Alexander's remarkable military achievements, his brilliant intellect and encouragement of learning, his charming personality and his truly god-like beauty should have attracted to him both the affection and the reverence of the multitude, nor yet that even the conquered Egyptians should have regarded him as a true descendant of one of their own dynasties. After his death, they claimed him as the son of their last native King, Nectanebus II ; while others declared Alexander to have been no other than a Persian prince.

The ultimate grandeur and importance attained by the city of Alexandria, however, was due to the two Ptolemies I and II, Soter and Philadelphus, the former of whom founded the famous Alexandrian library and museum, while the latter carried out the wise policy of his father. The first famous library is said to have contained 400,000 manuscripts, while in the days of Julius Cæsar (48 B.C.), when the valuable collection was burned to the ground during the siege of the city, the number of manuscripts had risen to about 900,000. Subsequently, Anthony, by a gift of 200,000 manuscripts, formed the nucleus of a second library. This collection also was subsequently destroyed at the command of the vandal Khalif Omar (or Amir) (A.D. 641), the documents being sufficient in number and weight, so it is said, " to heat the public baths of Alexandria for six months."

Alexandria had become known all over the world

(as it then existed) as the greatest of all centres of learning ; every effort was made to collect there the most distinguished men of the day—such as Eratosthenes, the astronomer ; Hipparchus, the inventor of trigonometry ; Archimedes, the mathematician ; Euclid, the author, whose work has everywhere been used for two thousand years as an introduction to the study of geometry ; and the often-quoted Strabo, a constellation of savants, in very truth, to have adorned by their presence one remote African city.

Amid all the political wars and social upheavals of their day, these scientists—historians, poets and philosophers—met at Alexandria and pursued their studies with as much diligence as their surroundings allowed. At this, the most prosperous, period of its history. Alexandria is reputed to have contained half a million inhabitants, among whom the Greek element largely predominated. To one of their race, the aforesaid Strabo, scholar and traveller, we owe the only records of Alexander the Conqueror that exist ; for no one during his lifetime, nor yet subsequently, was able to write his remarkable history.

From the Greek historian we learn that the town named after this Prince of Macedonia was regularly built, with streets intersecting each other at right angles and with one main artery of traffic. This would appear to have been identical with the long street, beginning at the Canopic Gate, which to-day forms the principal rendezvous of Alexandrian society. Under the new name of " Rue de Rosette," the thoroughfare leads from the centre of the city to the east ; the present Port de Rosette actually occupies the site of the ancient Canopic Gate.

Only a very few remnants, and these scarcely recognisable, of the principal buildings of ancient Alexandria are left. There is, however, apparently no doubt in the minds of scientists as to the genuineness of these ruins, and they endorse Strabo's version as to the actual site of the Paneum—"an artificial circular mound, resembling a rocky hill, in which a winding way ascends."

It is also possible to trace with some accuracy the sites of the theatre, the Sema (a burial-place, once containing the body of Alexander himself), and the museum which originally occupied a fifth, then a fourth, and, at one time, even a third part of the whole city. The Alexandrian theatre seems to have been an imposing building, occupying an unrivalled site which afforded the thousands of spectators an uninterrupted view of the sea in the background. No less beautiful or interesting could have been the great museum, which stood on a site to the east of the church of St. Athanasius. According to Strabo, the building contained "a hall for walking, another for sitting, and a large building with the refectory of the scholars residing at the museum."

The only monument dating from this period still standing is Pompey's Pillar, erected by a Roman Prefect named Posidius in honour of the Emperor Diocletian (A.D. 245–313), but whether to celebrate that blood-thirsty ruler's final great persecution of the unfortunate Christians before his abdication, or the reorganisation of his empire under two Augusti and two Cæsars, remains in doubt, since the inscription is indecipherable. This monument, with which the original Pompey had no connection whatever, as some people have thought, stands in the centre of the town near the square of

THE TEMPLE OF TRAJAN, ON THE ISLAND OF PHILÆ

RUINS OF TEMPLE OF PHILÆ

Muhammad Ali. It is a Corinthian column of granite brought—at how much cost of human labour!—from the quarries of Assuan, and stands 88 feet in height, of which 68 feet represent one single shaft, and the pedestal, 9 feet in diameter, the balance. There are other evidences of the enormous quantities of granite blocks that must have been dragged by reluctant slaves from the Assuan quarries to remote Alexandria, a distance of many miles. Numerous fragments of columns, large and small, lie scattered around the base of Pompey's Pillar, and are supposed to have belonged at one time to the Serapeum, or great temple of Serapis. Until comparatively recent times, two lofty granite obelisks, called by the ignorant "Cleopatra's Needles," were brought to Alexandria from Heliopolis during the reign of the Roman Emperor Augustus, and were set up before the Temple of Cæsar. One of these columns measured 67 feet in height, and the other 68½ feet, the diameter of each being 7½ feet. The larger of the two was presented by Muhammad Ali, Pasha of Egypt, to the British nation, and was transported in 1877, with great difficulty but entirely at private expense, to the Thames Embankment, where it stands—almost unrecognisable from soot and grime—to-day. The smaller obelisk was sent to New York.

Into the history of Alexandria from the Roman period, it is unnecessary to enter here. Suffice it to say that the city and port both declined rapidly, and never recovered their former importance. Of Alexandria as the battle-ground of various contending Christian sects, history has much to say—and very little of an agreeable character. As a place of commercial importance, it

ceased to exist when the sea-route to India *via* the Cape of Good Hope and the discovery of America came about. Muhammad Ali (elected Pasha of Egypt in 1805) did something towards restoring the port and constructing inland canals, while, to-day, the city is the centre of the great cotton-trade of Egypt, and has derived much pecuniary advantage from the fact. Since the riots and massacre of Christians that occurred during the Arabi rebellion of 1882, giving rise to the British occupation, which, lasting forty years, is only now coming to an end, Alexandria has not been very popular with Europeans as a place of residence, and few come to live there who can, by reason of their calling, reside anywhere else. None the less, there is a considerable European population, the greater part of whom are Greeks.

What is true of modern Cairo is equally true of modern Alexandria so far as the appearance of the two cities is concerned. The town is no longer Oriental in appearance, but distinctly, and even aggressively, Continental. To-day the streets bear such prosaic French names as Place de l'Eglise, Rue des Sœurs, Rue de Rosette, Rue de la Colonne, Quai Neuf, etc. ; even the old western port, known to the ancient Greeks as Eunostos, is now the Port Vieux.

During the war, Alexandria became very much "English." The fine port, situated between the Mediterranean Sea and the Mareotic Lake, and connected with the Nile by several navigable channels, was used for the landing of British reinforcements, stores, ammunition, etc., while before those strenuous days structures like the English Church and St. Mark's buildings gave a certain *un*-Oriental appearance to

NATIVE ROWERS.

A BREAKWATER ON THE NILE.

EGYPTIAN TYPES.

Alexandria

Alexandria's new quarter, the Place Muhammad Ali. Even the beautiful royal château of Montaza, buried in pine-woods and luxuriant gardens, and which by their position and beauty remind the visitor somewhat of the Archæleon Palace and grounds at Corfu (formerly belonging to the ex-Emperor of Germany—by purchase from the late Empress Elizabeth of Austria), became an English convalescent home.

CHAPTER X

THE EGYPTIANS—AGES OF CULTIVATION—THE *FELLAH*—PHYSIOGNOMY UNCHANGED—HOW HE LIVES, EATS AND DRESSES—THE COPTS—LOVE OF FINERY—THE BEDOUINS—A *FELLAH* AT HOME—HIS HUT AND SURROUNDINGS—TO-DAY'S IMPROVED CONDITIONS—EGYPTIAN WOMEN—LITTLE EXPENDED UPON DRESS—CHILD-LIFE AND MORTALITY—EDUCATION AMONG WOMEN—GIRLS AND THEIR SCHOOLING—THE MUHAMMEDAN ATTITUDE TOWARDS FEMALES.

TO-DAY Egypt is still nothing if not agricultural, in spite of the fact that no more than 7,391,000 feddâns, out of a total of 214,000,000 feddâns, forming the political area of Egypt, are under some sort of agricultural cultivation. This is because by far the greater part of the country is unadulterated desert. Fertile land, watered by rivers like the Hoangho, Ganges, Tigris, Euphrates and Nile, has been cultivated and used for pasture from time immemorial. The Egyptians, like the Chinese, Babylonians and Jews, were noted for their pastoral husbandry. Taking the people as a whole, and notwithstanding their very low standard of living, they are prosperous and contented, thanks to their emancipation at the hands of the British from a state of virtual slavery. It is only the official and bureaucratic classes, owing to a process of education which they have been too dense to properly assimilate, who are really dissatisfied with their lot. The present normal rate of increase in the population is about 200,000 per annum, while the entire population of Egypt (estimated at about 14,000,000) has nearly doubled itself during little more than the generation passed.

A FELLAHIN'S DOMICILE

Fellahin

About ten different elements enter into the population of Egypt; of these the more numerous are the *fellahin*, land-tillers or peasants, forming undoubtedly the sinews of the national strength. In personal appearance the Egyptian labourer seems to have altered hardly at all from his ancestor of six thousand years ago; he is ordinarily, as depicted a thousand times over on monuments and papyri, coloured mural decorations and mummy-wrappings, slightly above the middle height, with prominent cheek-bones and skull, powerful wrists and ankles, strong, massive, somewhat squat and ungainly in stature, and almost animal-like in his gentleness. These physical characteristics, however, are less marked among the desert tribes, especially the Bedouins, who are decidedly more lithe and graceful in their movements, and, on the whole, better-looking. Both men and women are usually slight and slender; a gross or obese native is seldom encountered except in the cities and towns, the result of over-feeding and too-luxurious living.

Another means of recognition which has come down to the modern from the ancient Egyptian is the peculiarity of the eyelashes on both lids, which form a dense, double black fringe giving an expression of animalism to the almond-shaped eyes and a look of cunning—far from prepossessing. The straight, smooth forehead, the nose with a low bridge clearly separated from it, and with a certain flatness, form, as of yore, the chief points of Egyptian physiognomy. Besides a resemblance in facial appearance, the *fellah* of to-day is almost an exact replica of the *fellah* of Biblical times, in garb and disposition. The true Egyptian is darker in complexion than other denizens of the town and desert, the colour

deepening as the race is encountered further southwards, from the pale brown of the inhabitant of Lower Egypt (the delta) to the dark bronze of the Upper Egyptian. There is as clear a distinction between the Egyptian and the Nubian as between the Nubian and the Sudanese.

Then there are the Copts, who are regarded as the most direct descendants of the ancient Egyptians, and whose members, probably exceeding half a million, dwell mostly in towns and engage chiefly in such occupations as watchmaking, goldsmithing, embroidering, weaving and tailoring ; but they are not unknown, nor are they unsuccessful, in trade as clerks, accountants and notaries.

The Bedouins are nomadic Arabs, and usually the most troublesome of all the Egyptians, from whom they differ greatly both in origin and language. Of the Bedouins there are several groups, the two principal tribes being the Arab-speaking, occupying the deserts adjoining Central and Northern Egypt ; and the Ethiopians, who formerly occupied the Nubian part of the valley of the Nile. Some observant travellers, who may be also physiognomists, have declared it to be their conviction that the greater part of the natives encountered in Cairo are not true Egyptians, but a mixture of Syrians, Armenians, Tunisians, Algerians, Maltese, Greeks, Levantines and half-breeds of every description, with very few genuine Arabs among them.

The dwellers in Egypt include probably fewer than 120,000 Europeans. According to Lord Cromer, in 1897, the number of Europeans and protected subjects of European Powers living in the country was under 113,000. The late diplomat referred, no doubt, to the permanent residents, and did not include in his estimate

the swarms of tourists who then, as now, invade Egypt at a certain period of the year.

If the Egyptian has altered little in appearance or costume, he has certainly not changed much in his mode of living. As always, the typical dwelling of the *fellah* is a miserable hovel, consisting of four irregularly-shaped walls formed of mud-bricks and enclosing seldom more than one apartment, thatched with any convenient material at hand, sometimes durra-straw, at others pieces of old iron or wood, or even strips of dirty, disused canvas. Like the low-class Irish peasant, the Egyptian cheerfully shares the interior of his abode with such animals as he may happen to possess, excluding, however, the unholy pig, but numbering many goats, kids, poultry, cats and a mangy pariah dog or two. The only furniture of his establishment consists of a few filthy, lice-laden sheep-skins, several baskets of various sizes, shapes and dilapidation, some matting made by hand and a copper kettle, with a few common earthenware pots and pans, or plates and dishes of wood.

In Upper Egypt few bricks are used, the walls of the huts being of either mud or straw, and sometimes merely of rushes roughly plaited in the form of wattles. Never a window or chimney-place is to be found, all cooking —such as it is—being done outside ; the one opening left in the hut is just large enough to admit a human form entering upon hands and knees. Around this unattractive hovel is built a wall of mud about five feet in height, partly for privacy and partly to prevent the animals confined within from straying. In the hot weather the whole family sleeps without, but during the coldness of the winter nights as many as a dozen

men, women and children, with their animals, are packed away in the interior, breathing—unharmed apparently—the fœtid atmosphere of this den.

In regard to food, until the improvement effected by British occupation in the life of the peasant, the nourishment taken was usually of the most frugal character, consisting mainly of a coarse bread made of sorghum flour or from maize grown in the delta. Wheaten bread was unknown, or meat either, except for the flesh of an old and probably diseased goat, while sometimes upon great feast-days the head of the family might provide the flesh of a kid. To-day the peasant lives far better ; his bread is now wheaten, while meat he tastes frequently. Moreover, he can afford to grow and eat broad beans (*fûl*), and few peasant families need, from poverty, dispense with a hot meal at the close of the day. The meat is generally eaten with a highly-salted sauce made with onions and butter, or with linseed and sesame oil, into which various herbs or the capsules of the fruit of the hybiscus are introduced.

The table manners of the Egyptian *fellah* are not, perhaps, of the most *recherché* description. Each member of the family dips his or her unwashed fingers into the general pot, table implements—such as spoons or forks (sometimes even plates)—being considered superfluous.

In regard to costume, as already observed, the Egyptian *fellah* garbs himself to-day very much as did his remote ancestors of the old Biblical times. When working in the fields, he usually divests himself of everything but a loin-cloth ; but when met on the road or in the dwelling his garments consist of an indigo-dyed cotton shirt, a pair of short, wide cotton breeches,

a close-fitting skull cap, and, as an additional article of attire, a short cloak of brown home-spun goats' wool. The *fellah* usually goes bare-footed, but occasionally he may wear pointed red *zerbun* or broad yellow *balga.* (shoes). The wealthier, or socially-superior, class of peasant adopt a wide, black woollen cloak and thick red Tunisian *fez* (tarbush), with a blue silk tassel swinging above a picturesque coil of white and red turban.

In point of dress, the majority of female Egyptian peasants (except upon fête-days or special occasions) attire themselves in the plainest and ugliest of garments, paying absolutely no attention to their personal appearance, and spending little or nothing upon their outer adornment—except in the way of massive, and mostly common, jewellery. With a remarkable unanimity of ideas, they robe themselves in folds of an ugly, colourless and coarse material known as *damur*, manufactured upon their own primitive looms from locally-grown cotton, or purchased from Manchester or Indian mills in the Egyptian market-places. Beyond these coverings, and some rough kind of leather sandals, likewise fashioned in the bazaars, the majority of native females make no use of clothing. But among the better-class Egyptians brightly-coloured materials are in demand, although not to the same extent as grey goods. The Egyptian Copts are particularly fond of brilliant colourings, and love to display them at ceremonies such as christenings and marriages.

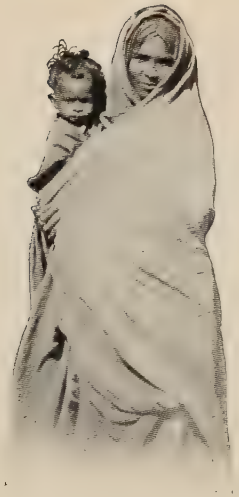
But the stately carriage of the Egyptian woman usually endows the wearer of even the dowdiest garments with a certain grace ; the very rags of a pure Egyptian woman may look picturesque. Note how even a common

kerosene-tin, filled with water drawn from the Nile, rests with appropriate elegance on some young, well-poised head, how as this "Rebecca of the River," with her disengaged hand gathering her tumbled skirt around her frame, preparatory to mounting the steep incline, manages to display a remarkably neat foot and ankle, more shapely than those of a statue.

Few visitors leave Egypt unimpressed, and sometimes greatly saddened, by the character of its child life. Apart from the fact, common in all Oriental countries, that girls, themselves little more than children, become mothers at the age of fourteen or fifteen, and that boys are fathers of families before they reach the age of twenty, the neglect and apparent misery of the infantile population strike the casual visitor as so terrible as to call for enquiry and remedy. Yet child life in Egypt is not always as ugly as it appears. The advent of a child—and especially a male—at once raises the mother in the esteem of her husband, and creates envy in the breasts of other women less fortunate; among both rich and poor sterility in a woman is regarded as a curse, and, for her, a cause of reproach. In the days before slavery was abolished, the contribution by a female slave of a child to the master's household brought certain privileges, and even on occasions the mother's freedom. Thus, every woman seeks to become a mother, and so many are the births, and, alas, so numerous are the resultant deaths, that no Government record can keep account of them.

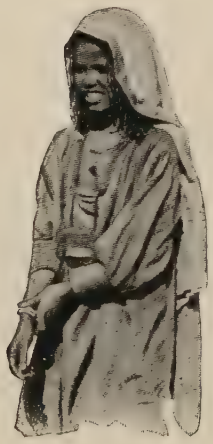
Once having contributed to the human population, the average Egyptian mother leaves her offspring to live or to die as Allah may direct. From their earliest days

A FAMILY GROUP.



MOTHER AND CHILD.

DWELLERS OF THE DESERT.



A WORKER IN THE FIELD.

MORE EGYPTIAN TYPES.

AN EGYPTIAN
MAIDEN.

A PENSIVE GIRL
FROM NUBIA.

WOMEN AND CHILDREN OF THE
POORER CLASSES.

EGYPTIAN WOMEN.

the miserable, helpless little creatures are abandoned to dirt and disease, their bodies to be covered by filthy flies, and compelled to fight against the ever-threatening national curse of ophthalmia. More than one-half of the children born become blind from sheer neglect, while all are verminous, and many cruelly maimed through accident or wilful and deliberate maltreatment. Almost as soon as it can talk the little brown toddler begins to beg for *backsheesh*, hardly aware of the act or the significance of the term. But it soon learns ; for at the earliest moment it is taught by its parents or associates to bring home largesse of some kind, or in case of failure to suffer the penalty of chastisement or starvation.

With all these infantile grievances to contend with, the average Egyptian youngster is still apparently high-spirited, full of play, and even boisterous upon the slightest encouragement. The Egyptian schoolboy is usually full of fun, and the street-Arab even offensively merry. Taught to work at some kind of labour in the fields, or as carriers of rubbish, hundreds of little brown urchins may be seen struggling painfully along, but without complaint, under heavily-loaded baskets of sand and débris, gathered, perhaps, from some newly-excavated ruin, as, for instance, at Luxor.

The whole position of woman in Egypt is undergoing a change. It is still considered quite impolite for Europeans to enquire after the wives or daughters of a Muhammedan, his relations to the sex being considered his own business and that of no one else. However intimate one may become with an Oriental, he is scarcely ever known to speak of, still less to introduce a foreigner to, the females of his household. With all the zeal and

care taken to protect his womenkind from observation or even discussion, however, the Oriental is by no means over-gentle in his dealings with them ; he is still apt to regard them with little more interest than his cattle or his furniture.

Some observant critics declare that the Moslem of to-day is really little more advanced temperamentally than the Moslem of thirteen hundred years ago, pointing as evidence of this contention to the still-enslaved condition of numerous women in Egypt and the Sudan. Even admitting that the doctrine which imposes the veil on Moslem women is out-of-date, there can be no question that educational institutions have helped, and are helping, day by day, to assist Moslem women towards their emancipation. The social position of women in the East generally is unquestionably improving. Since the days of the British occupation, for example, progress with female education in Egypt has become marked, accompanied by very clearly defined changes of customs and alterations of ideas. Little sympathy or assistance were met with when female education was first suggested, the most determined opposition coming from the wealthier classes. It was due to the efforts of Yacoub Artin Pasha, at one time Minister of Education, and much obsessed by European ideas of "culture," that the movement for female education first gained strength. Certain of the upper classes among the Egyptians may still be averse to women and girls being educated, but the proportion attending public schools is gradually increasing and the reluctance of parents to send their daughters being overcome. According to information supplied by the Ministry of Education, the

ROCK WALL IN THE SAHARA

total number of girls receiving elementary vernacular education in schools last year was 46,582, of whom 7,690 were in attendance at the 51 girls' elementary schools maintained by the Ministry. The Provincial Councils maintained 81 elementary schools, attended by 7,592 pupils, compared with 79 schools attended by 6,908 girls in 1919.

The Government no longer finds it necessary to offer as a bait free education in the primary schools, while the number of private scholastic establishments has greatly increased of recent years. Already there are evidences that with the education of Egyptian women the demand will be made for participation in official and public affairs. So far there have not been any Egyptian "Lady Astors" or "Mrs. Wintringhams" to trouble the Government Departments, but it would be a dangerous prophesy to say that none will appear in due course. As a fact, invitations are being extended to Moslem women to come to Europe for their education; four Egyptian girl students were sent to England in 1920 for a further course of training, two being educated as kindergarten teachers and two studying general school subjects with the object of teaching at the Sania Training College or the Secondary School on the completion of their course. After this there is no saying what may occur!

The fact, however, remains—and is likely to remain—that the more ignorant Muhammedans are convinced that there is no future life for women. Those somewhat better acquainted with the Koran accept Muhammedan teaching on this subject in a different light, and believe that some sort of a future life is reserved for females.

The influence of Egyptian women, like that of their Indian sisters in political matters also, is stronger than it was, as was proved recently in the case of the agitator Zaghul, banished from Egypt and later languishing in the Seychelles, who forthwith was aggressively and perhaps more efficiently replaced in revolutionary circles by his wife, who continued (and perhaps continues still), unchecked, a thoroughly mischievous agitation.

CHAPTER XI

THE FRENCH IN EGYPT—BRITISH POSITION CHALLENGED BUT CONSOLIDATED—ARABI REBELLION—ADVANTAGE TO EGYPT—FINANCIAL REGENERATION—TAX ABOLITIONS—LORD CROMER'S SERVICES—FINANCIAL ADVISERS—TREACHERY OF KHEDIVE ABBAS II—AFTER FORTY YEARS' TUTELAGE, EGYPTIANS TO RULE EGYPT—STARTING WITH GOOD PROSPECTS.

THERE was never any doubt regarding the real reason that brought Napoleon Bonaparte into Egypt. His perfectly comprehensible hatred of England and everything English induced him to adopt some practical plan for the destruction of Britain's flourishing trade in the Mediterranean. This, he decided, could be best accomplished by occupying Egypt, where England held a strong position as guardian of the gateway leading to the Indies.

Napoleon's ultimate military success in Egypt proved no greater than that undertaken in Russia, for within comparatively few days of his troops landing (July 1, 1798), their storming of Alexandria, and even of their success over the Mamelukes at the Battle of the Pyramids (July 21st), British ships, commanded by Nelson, attacked and dispersed Napoleon's fleet at Aboukir (August 1st), no fewer than thirteen out of seventeen of the French vessels being completely destroyed. Nor did Bonaparte's repulse of the Turkish Army, in July of the following year, stand him in better stead, since Sir Ralph Abercrombie, with equal celerity, defeated the remnants of

the army which had been left under General Kléber; then followed the French evacuation, and before the close of 1801 Napoleon's hordes had been almost entirely swept out of Egypt. With the exception of a few stragglers at Cairo and Alexandria, that land knew them as invaders no longer.

It is interesting to recall how, for years afterwards, our present allies sought unceasingly, and by every means in their power, to thwart and defeat our policy in Egypt and the Sudan. We are now—let us hope—such permanently good friends that we can afford to look back upon those critical times without either bitterness or recrimination. *Absit invidia.* But in those unhappy days France obstinately refused to work in concert with England for the peace and prosperity of Egypt. Her forcing of unnecessary expenditure upon this country, by offering objection at each meeting of the International Commission called to sanction expenditure out of the Caisse de la Dette; her insistence, with Russia, upon making Great Britain pay for the Dongola Expedition to the Sudan (from the success of which, nevertheless, both those countries, like others interested in the civilisation of the world, derived benefit); her strenuous opposition to the reduction of interest on the Egyptian debt; the delays occasioned in the abolition of the *corvée*; the raising of difficulties over the drainage of Cairo; and, finally, the extremely provocative movements made in the direction of the Upper Nile, which had to be circumvented by Lord (then Colonel) Kitchener, testified to the malignity with which politicians of a certain school could baulk and jeopardise the intentions of another well-meaning although rival civilising Power.

TEMPLE OF LUXOR AT EVENTIDE

TEMPLE OF LUXOR FROM THE EAST SIDE

Neither was it without its humorous side that, a few years later, the main mover against British interests in the Sudan, General (then Colonel) Marchand, should have become a firm co-operator, and, to many Englishmen, a warm personal friend.

Some local historians have placed on record that the earliest movements of the British towards Egypt were directed by the "purest of motives." Even critics like Lord Milner have declared, without sarcasm, that British interference after Tel-el-Kebir was "in no way intended to precede military occupation." It is hardly to be expected, however, that our French competitors in Africa, nor, indeed, many of our other foreign critics, would accept such an assurance, notwithstanding the late Mr. Gladstone's known antipathy to entering upon foreign enterprises of this kind and his almost craven desire to propitiate the goodwill of his great contemporary, M. Gambetta. As a fact, we were forced to assert ourselves in Egypt then, as, a little over three decades later, we were impelled unwillingly and even unpreparedly into war with Germany. If, in pursuing our policy in Egypt, we cannot claim to have been entirely actuated by the loftiest and most unselfish of motives, we may at least contend that we remained there as much for the benefit of other nations—particularly that of the Egyptians themselves—as for our own.

Following the rebellion promoted by Ahmed Arabi Pasha, a brave but decidedly foolish man of *fellah* origin, the slaughter of Christians at, and the bombardment of, Alexandria (1881), Lord Wolseley's success at the battle of Tel-el-Kebir (1882), the subsequent occupation of Cairo, and the surrender, trial and exile of the chief

culprit, the British Army took complete possession of Egypt. The Egyptian Army, no longer considered trustworthy, was disbanded, and British troops remained in control for almost exactly forty years, thus confirming the soundness of Lord Northbrook's advice when he recommended Her Majesty's Government to "fix *no* date at which the British troops serving in Egypt should be withdrawn, since such steps must depend upon the internal state of the country and upon the political position."

The death of M. Gambetta and the fall of the anti-British French Ministry of that day lightened, to some extent, our task of restoring order and organising something like a decent Government in Egypt. Then commenced the despatch of various gifted statesmen and soldiers charged with this undertaking, such as Sir Evelyn Baring (afterwards Lord Cromer) as Agent and Consul-General (September 1883); Sir Edgar Vincent, Financial Advisor; and Lord Wolseley, appointed to the command of the useless Sudan Expedition (1884). In that year also took place the first and last meeting of the London Conference on Egyptian Finance, and the publication of Lord Northbrook's famous report on the whole Egyptian situation.

In the meantime, the history of the adjoining Sudan was being written, following upon the British Government's policy of abandonment. Province after province fell into the hands of the Madhi, a fanatical boat-builder of Dongola, whose object was to gain over the Sudan to rebellion against the dominion of the Turks, then to march on Egypt, and, by overthrowing Christians and Ottomans alike, convert the whole world. It was

SUEZ.

A DISTANT VIEW OF THE TOMBS OF THE CALIPHS (CAIRO).

MUEZZIN'S TOWER IN CAIRO, WHENCE THE FAITHFUL ARE CALLED TO PRAYER.

not until 1889 that this trouble was successfully attacked and overcome. Thanks to the masterly services of soldier-statesmen like Lord Kitchener, Sir F. Reginald Wingate and others, the Sudan was for ever rescued from Mahdi influence and set upon the path to become one of the most peaceful and prosperous of our Outposts of Empire, a goal long ago achieved, and enjoyed to-day.

Nor had there been any permanent halt in the improvement of Egypt itself. Many beneficial laws were passed applicable both to natives and Europeans; while in February 1889 Sir Evelyn Baring was able to report that "the race against bankruptcy had been practically won." In economic affairs great advantages had accrued from sound and honest government. The repairs to the Nile barrage were completed, to be followed a few years later by the construction of the Nile reservoirs; the *corvée* was totally abolished in 1892; reduction of the salt tax and abolition of the professional tax followed in the same year, while in 1900 navigation dues on the Nile were abandoned, thus gradually relieving the natives of Egypt of some of the worst forms of financial oppression. The *fellah* grew rich and sent his sons in greater numbers abroad to study. Egyptians were made to feel that their interests were in good hands.

During the next few years further advantages were gained through British administration, such as the creation of an agricultural bank, a commercial convention with France, and the inauguration of the Nile reservoirs, all three events taking place in the year of 1902; while the abolition of *octroi* duties in the following year, and the entire redemption of the Diara Debt in 1905 added

further to the lightening of Egypt's burdens. Shortly afterwards the salt monopoly was abolished, while improvements were recommended in regard to public education. Instruction, such as it was, had always been in Egyptian hands and suffered accordingly; but in 1906 an English advisor, Mr. Dunlop, was appointed to supreme direction, and from that date commenced its improvement. How necessary was some reform may be gleaned from the fact that in 1898, as a result of the neglect of primary education, over 91 per cent. of the population were unable to read or write. Even to-day the proportion of illiterates in Egypt is over 92 per cent. of the population. Of 14,000,000 people, fewer than 280,000 were receiving school education in 1921.

In 1907, to Egypt's great loss, Lord Cromer, respected by everyone, liked by most, and (by those who understood him) loved for his great worth and sincerity of purpose, left the country. He was followed by Sir Eldon Gorst, a somewhat different kind of administrator. After his retirement there were no fewer than five British Agents or High Commissioners. A long series of distinguished financial experts have contributed their knowledge and experience to the elucidation of Egypt's financial problems. Sir Auckland Colwyn, Sir Edgar Vincent, Sir Elwin Palmer, Sir Eldon Gorst and Sir Vincent Corbett were among the more distinguished non-military counsellors. Lord Kitchener, as a contrast, afforded one of the finest examples of the capable soldier-financier that our country has yet produced, while the services of Sir Paul Harvey, who had resigned during Lord Kitchener's time but was induced to return to Egypt as Financial Adviser, thus fulfilling a post which

ON THE PLATEAU OF THE SAHARA

IN THE SAHARA

had not been occupied since the death of Lord Edward Cecil, proved of strength. But Egypt, not unnaturally, felt herself to some extent a field for successive experiments. The result of these repeated changes, due to the accident of circumstances, tended to increase the independence of the permanent British officials, who appeared to be more concerned with departmental efficiency than with questions of policy, while to Egyptian observers they conveyed an impression of uncertainty and instability.

Up to the termination of the British Protectorate, the Financial Adviser had been the most important British official in Egypt. Although possessing no executive functions, he was always present at the meetings of the Council of Ministers, and, while no attempt was ever made in any very precise manner to define his duties, the influence that he wielded was no doubt important. If he opposed a decree or draft-bill it could not be adopted, nor could any administrative measure involving expenditure be introduced without his sanction. But besides having to advise upon all important financial matters, he had often to guide ministers on matters wholly unconnected with finance.

The next few years covered a critical period in the political development of Egypt; the strong hand of British rule was felt to such an extent that many manifestations of hatred and opposition were met with. The agitators gained many adherents and Anglophobia plainly exhibited itself, particularly in opposition to the extension of the concession to the Suez Canal Company, a subject brought up for discussion in 1910, although the existing concession does not expire until 1968.

The well-meant efforts of the British Representative, Sir Eldon Gorst (1894), to trust the Egyptians more and more with the conduct of their own affairs had been entirely misunderstood and grossly abused, being mistaken—as was to have been expected—for weakness. No one realised this more than Sir Eldon himself, of whom it may be justly said *justum et tenacem propositi virum;* later on he admitted the failure of his attempt to pacify the Nationalist Egyptians by the granting of concessions and by the gradual diminution of British authority in the interior. An official declaration made in the House of Commons on behalf of the British Government confessed that " there could be no hope of further progress in Egypt until the agitation against the British occupation ceased." While this belated announcement had a temporary effect in Egypt, it proved unenduring; and during the whole of Lord Kitchener's subsequent administration unrest, not always apparent but none the less deep-seated, prevailed.

In July 1912 a plot to murder the British Agent, the Khedive and the Premier was discovered, while further investigation disclosed the existence of a secret society directed against the native Government, in which many influential Egyptians were found to be involved. But, again, weakness was shown by the British Government, for instead of punishing by death the numerous plotters who were arrested, tried and clearly convicted, they were merely sentenced to temporary terms of simple imprisonment.

We often failed to assert ourselves with sufficient resolution, thereby adding to the anomalousness of our position, as, for instance, during the days of the Khedive

Abbas II, when it was customary for the British Consul-General—the most influential of all and, indeed, the *only* foreign representative having any political authority in Egypt—to pass before the throne at a reception the last but one of the different diplomatic representatives, even those of minor countries such as Holland (whose Minister, being the *doyen* of the diplomatic corps, marched first), Spain and Roumania. Until the events of 1914 compelled us, we did not assume, as from the first we ought to have assumed, that dominant position to which we were thoroughly entitled.

Neither were the mischievous efforts of native journalists, whose organs have always been a bane to any form of foreign government in Egypt, sufficiently punished or restrained. The native Press of Egypt is perhaps one of the most pernicious and poisonous in the world. Throughout the reign of Abbas Hilmi numerous mushroom organs were inspired from the palace to attack British interests and British administration, the most virulent among the native journalists being paid in proportion to the amount of annoyance caused and the venom employed in urging hostility to everything British.

As to the Khedive Abbas II himself, from the very first days of his reign (1892) he proved himself an ingrate to this country. Called to the throne at a very early age, he had perhaps but little opportunity of acquainting himself with the true nature or the limits of the vast power placed in his hands. His ideal throughout was the arbitrary personal powers formerly wielded by his grandfather Ismail. On the other hand, the memory of his own father, Tewfik, who had played

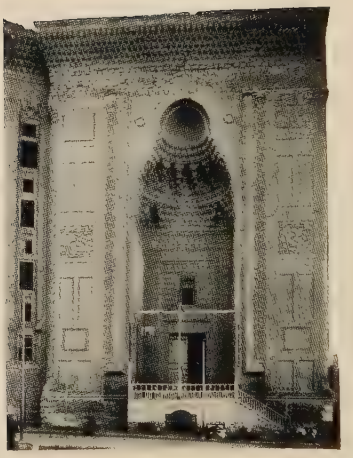
his part well, having identified himself with every measure of improvement, was completely forgotten or ignored.

Relations between Abbas and different British Administrators—Lord Cromer, Sir Eldon Gorst and Lord Kitchener—continued to be of the worst. Lord Kitchener, in an interview with the writer, once declared that but for his own unceasing vigilance and preparations to act at a moment's notice, Abbas would have precipitated a revolution time after time ; "in fact," said the late Field-Marshal—*curiosa felicitas*—" the little monkey had to be watched with the utmost care."

Lord Kitchener, like his predecessors in office, realised that no improvement in Egypt's position could be brought about so long as Abbas Hilmi was allowed to remain on the throne. When he left Cairo for England in the early summer of 1914, Lord Kitchener determined to get the Khedive's claws effectively clipped, and this operation was performed not very long afterwards. The unrepentant Abbas was deposed from the throne of his father, which had been raised and sustained by British influence and will alone ; he was compelled to leave Egypt for ever, and doomed to join that fast-diminishing band of *rois en exile*.

Britain's preponderating interests in Egypt naturally attracted both the attention and jealousy of the rest of the world, with the result that hostile combinations were formed and inimical opinions expressed. Yet subsequent events sufficiently proved that we had conducted ourselves in a spirit of moderation, and remained only with a desire to establish permanent peace. If the economic gain to us has not been altogether unenviable, that secured to other civilised nations has proved only

TOMBS OF THE CALIPHS AT CAIRO.



A PLACE OF PRAYER

ANCIENT BURIAL GROUNDS.

a little less so. Great historical writers like Sir John Seeley have proved by the soundest of arguments the necessity of our political supremacy among foreign nations with interests in Egypt; this must always be the principle of British policy in the Near East, while from a geographical point of view the position of Egypt renders the control of its destinies (other than domestic) an indispensable essential to the consolidation of the British Empire. What future historians will record, and, no doubt, comment upon with severity, is the equivocal character, maintained over so long a period, of our position in Egypt, notwithstanding our declared absolute right to be there.

For forty years our policy was a tossing and a drifting one, in spite of the admitted need of a strong single control. Since first we went there, in 1882, there have never lacked advocates for our scuttling out of the country. To-day, there are others who profess to see as clearly as ever the danger, not only to ourselves but to the entire peace of the Near East, of withdrawing our control. The Egyptians for centuries past have not only been accustomed to, but have actually invited invasion. Again and again they have proved incapable of governing themselves. Moreover, who can doubt that were we to finally withdraw, some other nation, upon some pretext or other, would one day, when Genoa Pacts have expired or been forgotten, attempt to enter, unless a British fleet, situated at Gibraltar, were there to prevent it? Egypt, through its north-east land frontiers, could be easily invaded from Palestine, from which we are also invited to "retire." We must, however, keep our firm hold on both countries so long as

the Eastern question remains unsettled, and this will apparently end only at the Greek Kalends.

Egypt's political troubles have always been of her own creation, and he would indeed be a bold prophet who would assert that the newest arrangement for administering the country will put an end to her domestic perplexities. There are many who believe that further and worse difficulties—such as civil war—lie ahead. Under Lord Allenby's advice, given no doubt in perfect good faith, Egyptian governors are to be trusted for the future as they have not been trusted in the past. *Sic volo, sic jubeo.* The Egyptian people henceforth are to be allowed to grapple with their own economic problems ; it remains to be seen how they will avail themselves of their opportunities, and what wise choice they will make from among their own people for their future governors and administrators. The Protectorate declared in 1914 is at any rate at an end, and Egypt has been recognised as a Sovereign State with an Egyptian Parliament and a re-established Egyptian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, subject only to certain minor conditions —including the provision of substantial guarantees, such as the assured protection of our Imperial communications and safeguards against foreign interference or aggression, either direct or indirect.

In 1882, Sir Evelyn Wood had advised Lord Granville that, in his belief, the British garrison might be entirely withdrawn from Cairo without disadvantage, while Lord Palmerston, upon the proposal that England should retain Egypt, declared :—

> We do not want Egypt ; what we wish is for Egypt to continue to be attached to the Turkish Empire, which is a security against it

belonging to any other European Power. We want to trade with Egypt and to travel in Egypt, but we do not want the burden of governing Egypt.

It is a matter of history that Lord Granville's policy became completely reversed by the disaster to General Hick's army in November, 1882, and the threatened danger to Egypt by the successes of the Mahdi.

Such success as has been achieved in Egypt, notwithstanding the admitted defects of certain British policy, has been carried out in spite, and not because, of the wisdom of our rulers at home. It has been due to the ability of men like Cromer, whose earlier proposals, however, sound and statesmanlike though they were, met with practical rejection or modification out of all recognition at the hands of the Foreign Secretaries of his day. Nevertheless, he adhered manfully to the task which he and his assistants had set themselves of evolving order out of the chaotic conditions, political and economic, that existed when British occupation first took place. Many years of disappointment and discouragement passed before any of that capable band of statesmen could have cherished much hope of success. But Egypt's history to-day is sufficient evidence of both their moral courage and their administrative capability. Not the least of achievements has been the triumph of their efforts at financial reform, a stupendous task since the days of 1880, when the first British controller was appointed, charged with the duty of balancing Egypt's Budget. At that period no less than 60 per cent. of the country's revenue was absorbed by the charge for Debt and Tribute. After thirteen years of European regulation, both needed less than 45 per cent. of the

revenue, while a few years later, instead of only one-third of the country's income being available for administration, the amount had been raised to one-half. The process of amelioration proceeded unchecked year by year, thus increasing the proportion of the revenue available for the country's future. In a word, Egypt has been rescued from ruin and restored to solvency, then from solvency to financial ease, and now from financial ease to comparative wealth, all this being the cumulative effect of that period of sound and equitable financial administration which would have been impossible had Egypt been left to its own resources. Now that the country is once more put in possession of its own administration, starting with a perfectly clean balance-sheet and wholly untrammelled by any outside interference, what will be its economic destiny?

GATEWAY OF PTOLEMY II AT KARNAK

HOLY OF HOLIES IN THE TEMPLE OF EL BAHRI.

CHAPTER XII

EGYPTIAN MONARCHY—EARLY WOMEN SOVEREIGNS—MUHAMMAD ALI AND HIS DYNASTY—FORTY YEARS' EVENTFUL REIGN—IBRAHIM'S SHORT RULE—ABBAS I MEETS A JUST FATE—SAID SUCCEEDS—NOTABLE REIGN—FRIEND OF LESSEPS AND SUPPORTER OF SUEZ CANAL—ISMAIL, FIRST KHEDIVE AND SPENDTHRIFT—TEWFIK'S DIFFICULT PERIOD—ABBAS HILMI, ENEMY OF ENGLAND—DETHRONED AND BANISHED—HUSSEIN FIRST SULTAN—HIS DEATH—FUAD SUCCESSIVELY SULTAN AND KING—LINE OF SUCCESSION ASSURED—RESCRIPT OF APRIL, 1922.

FOR thousands of years there have been kings in Egypt, before even the days of Mena, the first historical monarch. The principle of heredity, which is regarded as a fundamental characteristic of kingship, appears to have prevailed in ancient Egypt; any member of a monarch's family, even a female—as in the cases of Nitrocris (3133 B.C.), Hatshepset, sister of Thothmes III (1600 B.C.), Cleopatra, who succeeded her father Ptolemy Auletes XIII (69–30 B.C.), and Zenobia, who at least claimed to be "Queen of the East" (A.D. 266)—might be chosen, or could come by force of conquest into succession, the system of primogeniture not being established until many centuries later. By the latest rescript (April, 1922), women are expressly excluded from the succession.

In 1873, Ismail Pasha, the first Khedive of Egypt (the title was created in 1867), had obtained a firman from the Sultan of Turkey that the succession should thenceforth proceed by right of primogeniture, but the firman ceased to be binding on the severance of Egypt

from Turkey. Now, however, as will be seen later on, the line of succession gives effect to an idea which had an historical precedent for its support.

In 1803, England had restored Egypt to the Turks; but no sooner were the backs of our troops turned than the two most powerful rival parties in the country again fought one another desperately for supremacy. These were the Albanians and the Ghuzz, to the former of whom belonged Muhammad Ali; and it was his side that won. Elected Pasha of Egypt by the people, he was confirmed in the position by the Porte, and continued to rule for forty-three years, when, owing to the approach of senile decay, his favourite son Ibrahim, with whom he had frequently and bitterly quarrelled, was appointed to take his place.

After only a few months of power Ibrahim died, while his father followed him to the grave about one year later (1849), in the seventieth year of his age. Contemporary historians have written a great deal of Muhammad Ali. Mr. D. A. Cameron, in *Egypt in the Nineteenth Century*, gives an interesting and—on the whole—convincing account of this old Albanian Pasha's romantic career, and of his striking personality. The only Egyptian potentate who could claim to have defeated a British force—that under General Fraser, who arrived at Alexandria on March 15, 1807, with five thousand British troops, and was compelled to evacuate the town in the following September—Muhammad had little reason to congratulate himself in the end.

A grandson, Abbas Pasha, the son of Tusun, succeeded Ibrahim, but after a very short period, during which he distinguished himself mainly by the brutality

SUBURBAN MARKET (CAIRO)—AWAITING CUSTOMERS.

A FASHIONABLE SHOPPING
CENTRE IN CAIRO.

of his conduct and general incapacity as a ruler, he was —not undeservedly—strangled (1854). Then came the opportunity of Said Pasha, the fourth son of Muhammad Ali. He has been described as a just but weak man, whose principal claim upon fame will always be the practical interest that he displayed in connection with the Suez Canal, largely arising from his strong personal friendship for M. de Lesseps, and for the foundation of the famous Bulak Museum. His main defects were said to have been his excessive vanity and hopeless incapacity in the art of government, failings not unknown among Orientals. Said was followed by Ismail, the son of Ibrahim and a grandson of Muhammad Ali. Coming to the throne in 1863, Ismail reigned until 1879, when, owing to his incorrigibly reckless extravagance, and the fact that during his sixteen years' rule he had plunged the country into debt which exceeded £E90,000,000, he was compelled to resign and leave the country. This he did without much resistance, departing in state on his own yacht and taking with him to Smyrna about three hundred of his women. Lord Cromer has placed upon record that, roughly speaking, Ismail Pasha added on an average about £E7,000,000 a year for thirteen years to the debt of Egypt, and that practically the whole of the money that he had borrowed, except £E16,000,000 spent on the Suez Canal, was wilfully squandered.

Ismail's successor was his son Tewfik, who, for a short time, had acted as his father's Prime Minister. Tewfik ruled from June, 1879, until his death at Helwân in 1892. His thirteen years' reign had been full of incidents, many extremely disagreeable. His country had

to be cleared of debt, and this meant a considerable cut in the Khedivial income. The Arabi rebellion caused a complete reaction of sentiment against the throne, while the subsequent bombardment of Alexandria by British ships created a feeling of consternation which, for years afterwards, left its effects upon both the Khedive and the people. The successful rebellion of the Mahdi in the Sudan ; the massacre of the unfortunate Colonel W. Hicks and ten thousand of his men ; the assassination of Charles George Gordon at Khartoum, and the long-drawn-out troubles in the Sudan, all occurred during Tewfik's reign. Of him Lord Cromer wrote : " The best friends of Tewfik Pasha would probably not contend that he was a great man or an ideal Khedive." But he appears to have been very amiable and well-intentioned, a kind father, loyal and straightforward, and not unmindful of services rendered.

Tewfik was succeeded by his son, Abbas II (Hilmi) (January 7, 1892). While lacking the moral courage to openly repudiate British occupation, from the first he had struggled against it, and he always found the money to keep up the agitation or to pay for attacks upon British officialdom. In 1908, moreover, Abbas readily allowed himself to be made the tool of an organised campaign against British influence, upon which occasion the Agent-General, Sir Eldon Gorst, warned the British Government that " the policy of ruling Egypt in co-operation with native Ministers was incompatible with that of encouraging development of so-called representative institutions." Sir Valentine Chirol, in his book *The Egyptian Problem*, commenting upon this official declaration, says : " If Sir Eldon Gorst had added—' so

IN THE VALLEY OF THE ROYAL TOMBS

long as the Khedive Abbas is the head of the State '—the statement would have been unimpeachable." The same authority, upon page 160 of his work, says: "The mere fact that the ex-Khedive Abbas Hilmi used to put as many spokes as he could into the British wheels sufficed to rally a small but not insignificant band to the cause of a ruler who, as long as he was in Egypt, was universally feared and almost universally detested."

At the outbreak of the European War, Abbas Hilmi was absent from the country, but—thinking no doubt that the British Empire was about to totter to its fall—he showed himself in his true colours by declaring himself to be an enemy of Great Britain and an adherent of the Central Powers, with whom Turkey had thrown in her lot. The British Government, thus defied, acted as it should have a good many years before, had it accepted the sound advice tendered by more than one of its official representatives in Egypt. Following the proclamation of the British Protectorate (December 18, 1914), a further proclamation was issued (the next day) declaring the deposition of Abbas Hilmi Pasha from the Khediviate, and his banishment from the country. The crown of Egypt was then offered to Prince Hussein Kamel Pasha, the eldest living prince of the family of Muhammad Ali, together with the title of "Sultan of Egypt." The new sovereign was also informed officially, and, through him, the whole world, that "with the establishment of a sultanate in Egypt the Ottoman suzerainty would disappear."

The actual Turkish suzerainty over Egypt was always of the most shadowy kind; it had been practically destroyed in the early decades of the last century, and was

only restored (and wrongly restored) through the intervention of the Great Powers. It was long disliked and resented by most thoughtful Egyptians. The Arabi rebellion in 1882 had undoubtedly for one of its objects the release from Turkish connection. In more recent years it had constituted the so-called Nationalist Party (not altogether without their claims to consideration), to cultivate closer relations with Stamboul, and to profess admiration for Turkish ideals. But in real practice the Turk had no power in the control of Egypt. For many years the country had been governed by Egyptian Ministers, with whom British advisers, possessing certain powers, had been associated. When the misguided and since sorrowful Turks determined to throw in their lot with the Germans and plunge into war with Great Britain and her Allies, it became clear that some radical and permanent change in the character of the British occupation of Egypt would have to be made. The Government at that time, however, wisely limited their action within the narrowest possible boundaries ; but by terminating the suzerainty, and by declaring a British Protectorate, they left the door open for future development—an opportunity of which the fullest advantage has now been taken.

Unfortunately, Sultan Hussein died on October 9, 1917, and, in reporting his death, the High Commissioner for Egypt (General Sir F. Reginald Wingate) expressed the opinion that the Prince's devotion to duty had hastened his premature demise. Sir Reginald likewise bore testimony to the security and progress which had prevailed in Egypt during Hussein's short reign, a period of Egypt's history that had witnessed the

driving of the enemy from its gates, the flourishing of its agriculture and the initiation of a number of social and economic reforms.

It has been related how, some two years before his death, Sultan Hussein expressed apprehension that, on his decease, the British Government might, perhaps, bring back the heir of the ex-Khedive (Abbas Hilmi), and, in the interests of the internal peace of the country, Hussein expressed his anxiety that the order of succession should be laid down at an early date.

His own desire was that the succession should be in the following order :—

(1) His only son, Prince Kamel-ed-Din, or his brother, Prince Ahmed Fuad.
(2) His cousin, Prince Yusuf Kemal.

Neither Prince Kamel-ed-Din nor Prince Fuad at that time had sons, and the nomination of Prince Yusuf Kemal in the second instance was intended to provide for the contingency of the two prior claimants dying without male issue. Prince Kamel-ed-Din formally renounced his claim to the succession, and Prince Ahmed Fuad therefore ascended the throne as Sultan Fuad I, the order of succession being left to be decided by some future agreement between the Prince and the British Government. On attaining the throne, Fuad, who had been born March, 1863, was yet a bachelor ; eighteen months after his succession, however, he married the daughter of Abdel-Kahim Sabri Pasha. On February 11, 1920, the Sultan was presented with a son, a fact which definitely settled the order of succession. The child, Prince Faruk, is now over two years of age ; but there

are other direct heirs to the throne in the Sovereign's brothers, Prince Mahmoud Hamdi (born 1853), and Prince Ibrahim Hilmi (born 1860), and, of course, their direct descendants by right of age.

In March, 1922, the ruler of Egypt was raised to a kingship, and the title of "King" was first used on the seventeenth day of that month, when prayers were offered for the Sovereign at the Citadel Mosque in Cairo. By a rescript issued in April, 1922, it is laid down that each new King of Egypt establishes a new house, and that the succession is vested in his direct line. The ex-Khedive Abbas Hilmi has been expressly excluded, but without prejudicing whatever the rights of succession under the new law his direct and lawful male descendants may acquire. Female members of the house and their descendants are likewise excluded, also anyone who is not in full mental powers, who is not a Moslem, or is not the son of Moslem parents. The law also empowers the King to deprive of the rights of succession any prince marrying without his consent or who is declared unsuitable to belong to the family.

A king's majority is fixed at eighteen years of age, and, in the event of his being a minor when he succeeds, a Regency Council will be appointed either by his predecessor under the secret seal, to be opened after his death, and ratified by Parliament, or, in default, by Parliament. The character of the Council is also provided for; it will consist of three members to be chosen from Princes, Premiers, Ministers and ex-Ministers, and from Presidents and ex-Presidents of whatever Houses of Parliament may exist. Attention should be drawn to a striking feature of the rescript, since, by its provisions,

Photo by courtesy of] [*Mr. Leo Weinthal, O.B.E., F.R.G.S.*

H.M. KING FUAD I.

all the prerogatives with regard to a regency, the deprivation of rights and so on which have hitherto been invested solely in the Sovereign, have now been made subject to the approval of the Egyptian Parliament. This is considered a highly important departure, constituting a visible sign of the changing order of things in Egypt.

An inception of a less agreeable character was the official statement made in Cairo that the anniversary of King George's accession and birth, which, since the Protectorate over Egypt was proclaimed in 1914, had been celebrated as Government holidays, would in future *not* be kept. This step was hardly in consonance with the ardent wish expressed by King George in his message to King Fuad on March 18, upon the proclamation of the Kingdom of Egypt, regarding consolidation of the friendly relations and perfect entente which had always been " my heart's desire to see established between Great Britain and Egypt."

CHAPTER XIII

ARMIES—OLD AND NEW—ANCIENT FIGHTING FORCES—REMARKABLE VICTORIES—MARATHON, AND AFTER—REFORMING THE EGYPTIAN ARMY—SIR EVELYN WOOD—RESULTS OF TRAINING—THE *FELLAH* AS A SOLDIER—WHAT HE WAS AND IS—THE SPIRIT OF MUTINY—NOT YET SUBDUED—EVENTS OF MARCH 1922—PREVIOUS MUTINIES OF 1879 AND 1882—ARABI'S REBELLION—PRESENT STRENGTH OF ARMY ON PEACE FOOTING—FLYING TRAINING SCHOOL—DEATH OF A GALLANT OFFICER.

IT appears somewhat remarkable that, notwithstanding the intensely warlike character of the Egyptians—a quality pictorially portrayed upon so many of their ancient monuments, and inscribed upon so many of their archives—no consecutive account of any organised army has come down to us anterior to the record of that great fight engaged in at Marathon (490 B.C.) when Greek met Persian, and the latter's boastful leader came up against a far greater general than himself—the Athenian Miltiades. But the Persian spearmen had previously fought and overcome such gallant bowmen as the Medes, the Lydean lancers and the armed hosts of Babylon, Egypt and Greece itself.

Certain historians have related that warfare was carried on in the earliest times by hordes little better than armed multitudes ; and yet this description cannot apply to the mighty hosts of Egypt under such leaders as Teuhtimenes, who made many victorious expeditions into Mesopotamia ; Amen-Hetep III, who warred so successfully in the lands to the south of Egypt and in

Asia ; Rameses II, who subjugated the warlike Nubians ; or Tirhakah, whose conquest of the redoubtable Sennacherib, King of Assyria, is related with something like enthusiasm in Holy Writ (II Kings xix. 9). Great generals like Amasis (who rebelled against and overcame his Sovereign, Hophra), or Nectanebus I, who defeated the Persians at Mendes (378 B.C.), could certainly not have commanded mere rabbles. They must have possessed something approaching a very perfect organisation ; they were certainly able to travel great distances, as well as to carry out—for them—military undertakings of a vast and comprehensive character.

In the sixteenth century B.C. Egyptian forces, under Seostris, numbering—according to tradition—more than half a million of men, conquered and laid waste all that country as far east as India—their chariots and horsemen, their bowmen and spearmen forming important factors in their warlike composition, although their greatest victories would appear to have been gained by their masses of well-trained and tractable infantry, which formed the bulk of their invading armies.

Coming down to later days, the Egyptian Army owes its present organisation and efficiency entirely to the efforts of British officers. As far back as 1882, the late Field-Marshal Sir Evelyn Wood had been entrusted with the difficult and disagreeable task of reorganising what to all intents and purposes was a "disordered rabble." An unruly mob of slipshop, musket-nursing ruffians were these Egyptian soldiery, lacking both discipline and enthusiasm, and asking nothing better than to be allowed to return to their distant villages and there resume their desultory attempts at agriculture.

A vivid picture has been drawn for us of a *fellahin* soldier of those days, calmly seated cross-legged on a chair while on sentry-go, or standing bootless in his sentry-box in order to keep his feet cool. Apparently the sewing-on of buttons was the only martial accomplishment in which he excelled. Probably never again will be recorded accounts of fright and frenzy, of wild, misdirected fire and almost complete lack of obedience to command such as distinguished the conduct of the Egyptian troops at Tel-el-Kebir.

By Khedivial decree, dated December 20, 1882, the old Egyptian Army was disbanded, and a new régime under the direction of the distinguished British officer mentioned was brought into being. Sir Evelyn Wood had already gained a sound reputation in the Indian campaign of 1858. He had earned the much-coveted Victoria Cross, and was the best man to be selected to raise the new Egyptian Army, after having served with the 2nd Brigade (2nd Division) in the expedition to Egypt.

Sir Evelyn always believed in the fighting qualities of his Egyptian troops; this faith was subsequently well justified by events. In 1885, after the withdrawal of the British forces from Dongola, British and Egyptian troops fought side by side at Ginnes, and it was there that the "Gippies" gave sterling proof of their capacity to stand up against the determined onslaughts of a savage foe when stiffened by well-seasoned British troops. From that time forward the reformation of the Egyptian soldier may be said to have dated and his self-confidence restored. Since then, more than one British general has testified to the worth of the Egyptian as a plucky

fighter under proper encouragement and control. General Grenfell, mainly with the assistance of Egyptians, succeeded, at the Battle of Toshi, in dealing a decisive blow at the Dervish cause ; in fact he removed the menace of that power to Egypt for all time. Egyptian troops were also largely concerned in the defeat administered to Osman Digna, at Afafit, in 1891, thus enabling the garrison of Suakin to reoccupy Tokar, the only available base for the enemy's operations. Upon both of these occasions, under their English leaders, the *fellahin* battalions displayed great steadiness under fire, and did much to restore the good name that they had previously forfeited. The sound work initiated by Sir Evelyn Wood was thus testified to, and amplified. Both he and his handful of British officers had been enabled to put into practice a well-thought-out plan, and this without meeting with any notable opposition. The handling of the many serious difficulties which at first confronted them showed speedily that they knew how to go to work in order to make the best of the decidedly unpromising material at their disposal.

Sir Evelyn Wood appointed a number of British officers on full pay to staff and regimental commands in the new Egyptian Army ; this proved to be a shrewd and well-judged step. It became, indeed, the keystone to the whole present military structure. At first, service in the ranks was for a term of four years, followed by four years in the police and a further four in the reserve ; the police were available as a first reserve. Five years later, the terms of service were extended to five years with the active Army, and to a similar period with the police and reserve forces. At the outset, also, native

officers were selected from the old Army ; but all future appointments were conferred upon men who had been trained at a military school, and to which they were admitted by a sufficiently effective competition. The rank and file continued to be recruited by conscription, but the number of men required proved merely a light tax upon the large male population of Egypt. Then, as now, it was found always an easy task to secure more recruits than there was room for.

In many ways remarkable has been the improvement effected both in the moral and physical qualities of the Egyptian troops—taking them as a whole. To-day, they are found efficient, prompt, obedient and brave ; they shoot well, and go through their various evolutions of drill smartly and with apparent enthusiasm. None but those who, having seen the dismal, dissatisfied and disunited mob which constituted the Egyptian Army in 1882, may have likewise had the privilege of inspecting the King of Egypt's troops to-day, would credit that so great a transformation in appearance could have been effected from material apparently so worthless. An entirely new spirit moreover seems to have dawned among the men.

Three decades ago, so much had military service been feared and loathed, that some of the *fellahin* would deliberately mutilate themselves so as to escape service ; even that expedient, however, did not save them, for the notorious Abbas Pasha formed two battalions of self-mutilated—one-eyed, handless or fingerless—who were specially trained to make use of that part of their anatomy which remained whole.

That the spirit of discipline is not altogether perfect

even yet, however, was shown conclusively on the occasion of the British proclamation in March of this year (1922), when the Egyptian Army's lack of loyalty caused not only indignation but surprise. During the whole course of the British occupation no such deplorable exhibition of lack of obedience among the infantry had occurred ; and although the incident referred to was confined to the small area placed in charge of the Egyptian troops in Cairo, it was deemed none the less disgraceful.

Writing upon the subject at the time, a local correspondent declared that : "When the Egyptian Army were ordered to assist the Egyptian police, they stubbornly refused, and even fraternised with the unruly crowds." When the latter, mainly a rabble led by students, attacked their Omdas (magistrates of villages) and other notables, the soldiers looked on unmoved ; the only occasion upon which they showed any control was when they tried to arrest one of the said Omdas, who, in self-defence, had drawn a revolver upon his assailants. The contrast between the small available forces of Egyptian cavalry, which are reported to have done excellent work on this occasion, and the Egyptian infantry and its officers was demonstrated in a most unsatisfactory light, and the Egyptian Government, realising the seriousness of the incident, promptly ordered a Court of Enquiry, consisting of one senior British officer in the Egyptian Army and three Egyptian officers, under the Presidency of El Lewa (General), J. K. Watson-Pasha, to investigate the matter. As a result of that enquiry, six officers of the Egyptian battalion concerned, including a major, were placed on half-pay.

In spite of the pressure brought to bear through certain influential quarters, the Cabinet, much to their credit, be it said, determined to deal firmly with the incident. But the punishment inflicted by the Court was generally regarded as ridiculously inadequate.

Unfortunately, mutiny among the Egyptians—officers and men alike—forms an ugly feature in relation to the past half-century's history of the Egyptian Army; and not mutiny only, for desertion and sedition have both been known. As shown, the first-named offence—the worst known and usually most severely punished under the military law of all nations—has again latterly reared its head, and been but insufficiently punished. Without a rigorously-observed mutiny law the common soldier would be liable to arrest and punishment only under the same conditions as a private citizen, and discipline would become impossible.

A serious mutiny of over two thousand officers took place at Cairo in February, 1879, and during those troubles the British Representative, Lord Vivian, had an unpleasant experience. Two other high officials, Sir Rivers Wilson (Minister of Finance) and Nubar Pasha, the Prime Minister, were actually attacked and hurt, although not seriously.

A second outbreak occurred towards the end of 1881, when certain mutinous colonels incited their troops to disorder; but they were weakly allowed to remain in command of their regiments. Arabi Pasha shortly afterwards started yet a third mutiny against his Sovereign, who felt keenly the humiliation brought upon him by these acts of his rebellious army. Fortunately for the Khedive, there existed no real junction between

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THE ARABIAN DESERT NEAR TAGUG

the disaffected soldiery and the people, or that portion of them represented by the National Party, otherwise trouble even more serious would inevitably have occurred.

The outbreak organised by Arabi in the following year (1882), which resulted in the riots of June, the attack upon foreigners at Alexandria, the bombardment of that city by British gunboats in the month of July, and the firing of the town by Arabi's followers, were all distinctly traceable to the disaffected Egyptian soldiery led by mutinous officery. The less eventful occurrences of the latest revolt (1922), forty years afterwards, forcibly recall those unpleasant incidents, and suggest that while the outward demeanour of the Egyptian soldier may unquestionably have improved, at heart he remains much about the same as formerly.

At the outbreak of the European War the British forces in Egypt and Palestine underwent many changes, and now that Egypt has been granted its separate political constitution still further alterations in the situation may be looked for. At the time that this volume went to press the Commander-in-Chief in Egypt was still Field-Marshal Viscount Allenby, G.C.B., C.M.G., formerly High Commissioner, but now known as "Very High Delegate (Mandub-essami)."

Service in the Egyptian Army to-day is nominally compulsory on all Egyptian subjects between the ages of nineteen and twenty-seven, the recruits required each year being chosen by ballot; but certain classes, including professors, students, Government employees, etc., are exempt. Exemption may also be purchased for the sum of £E20, if paid before the ballot. Natives of the Sudan are enlisted voluntarily for service in the Egyptian

Army ; but here again, in view of the strained relations between the two countries, brought about by the unwise attempt of the new Egyptian Assembly to dominate the Sudan, and even to annex it and its freed people, enlistments of Sudanese are likely to cease.

The peace effective of the Egyptian Army consists of 175 British officers, 857 Egyptian officers, and 21,951 men. Of the latter, the infantry consist of 12,147 men, with 386 Egyptian officers and 47 British ; the Camel Corps of 924 men, with 24 Egyptian and 7 British officers ; the artillery of 1,203 men, with 45 Egyptian and 7 British officers ; and the Military Works Department, with 956 men, 33 Egyptian and 7 British officers. Other branches of the service, in addition to the Staff (consisting of 95 men, with 9 Egyptian and 12 British officers) are the cavalry, mounted infantry, mounted machine-gun company, E. and W. Arab Corps, Equatorial Territorials, Bahr-el-Gazal Territorials, transport, medical corps, veterinary corps, mechanical transport supplies department, recruiting department, ordnance services, and schools, band, etc.

Another branch established is the flying training-school, which did excellent service in Palestine. One of its most distinguished officers was Flight-Lieutenant Edward Gerald O'Gorman, M.B., B.Ch., who had been Medical Officer at the Flying School for more than nine months. Unfortunately, he met with a fatal accident while flying over Heliopolis aerodrome, his machine catching fire in mid-air and crashing to the ground. His companion, Air-Commodore B. C. Horley-Drew, C.M.G., who also has seen much service and has been a Staff College graduate and Chief of the Air Staff at

VEGETABLE SELLERS.

A STREET SELLER IN THE POOR QUARTER OF CAIRO.

Cairo since June, 1919, escaped injury in a most miraculous manner.

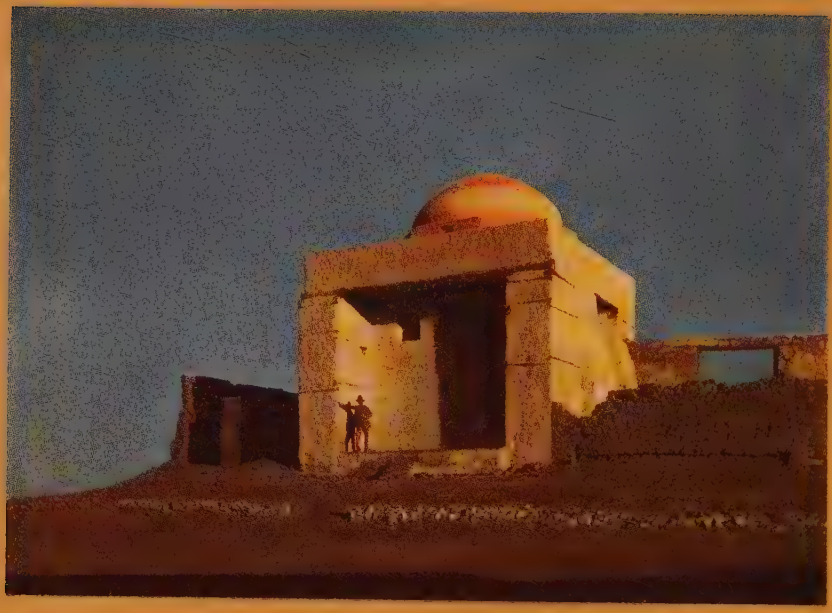
At least one Egyptian air-service has been established, namely, that between Cairo and Bagdad. In June, 1921, Sir G. Salmond flew over this route in twelve hours; the journey in the opposite direction had already been several times accomplished in between fifteen and sixteen hours of actual flying. Since the establishment of the service, however, few passengers have been carried, notwithstanding that the journey from Cairo to Bagdad taken by river and sea occupies several weeks in comparison with the few hours spent in the air.

CHAPTER XIV

IRRIGATION—UNDER THE PASHAS—THE *CORVÉE*—SOME DISTINGUISHED ENGINEERS—EARLY EGYPTIAN WORKS—THE BARRAGES—SIR COLIN SCOTT-MONCRIEFF—ASSUAN RESERVOIR—IRRIGATION DEPARTMENT—EXPERTS DISAGREE—NILE COMMISSION'S REPORT UPON PROJECTS—MR. C. E. DUPUIS—FURTHER WORKS TO BE UNDERTAKEN—NEED FOR ADDITIONAL WATER SUPPLY—CENTRAL DELTA SCHEME.

WHILE the ancient Egyptians could lay claim to engineering talent of the very highest order, a talent which was put to the best advantage in connection with Nile irrigation, until the British Occupation in 1882 irrigation was found to be going steadily downhill. According to Colonel Ross—who wrote a masterly introduction to Sir William Willcock's well-known book *Egyptian Irrigation*—" under the Pashas and Khedives, every year witnessed some false step being taken, in spite of the engineer." Every year the *corvée*, a system of forced labour of two kinds, lost ground in its out-turn of work, drains being abandoned or becoming useless, and canals less of artificial and more of natural channels wholly influenced by the annual rise and fall of the Nile. With the British it was a case of *carpe diem ;* nobly did they avail themselves of their opportunity, as admitted by Lord Cromer, who, in his standard volumes, *Modern Egypt*, pays a high tribute to the capacity displayed by the officials of the Egyptian Irrigation Department.

Some of the most distinguished engineers of their



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day have been employed in this Department, and one has only to point to the names of such brilliant consultants as the late Sir Colin Scott-Moncrieff, Sir Benjamin Baker, Sir Arthur Lewis Webb and Sir John Aird, and to Sir William Garstin, Sir Murdoch Macdonald and Mr. C. E. Dupuis, all of whom at various periods have rendered invaluable service to the cause of irrigation both in Egypt and the Sudan.

It is not without interest to know that, up to the year 1830, the basin system of irrigation, which had been first adopted by Mena, King of Egypt, 4,400 B.C., was still maintained. Five-and-twenty years after his election as Pasha of Egypt, Muhammad Ali introduced into the Delta the principle of perennial irrigation, calling to his aid a number of distinguished French engineers, among whom M. Moguel was the most sought after. In 1842, he came out to Egypt at the urgent request of the Pasha, and, after examining the irrigation question, proposed a system of barrages, to which was to be united a series of fortifications to be built at the bifurcation of the river. M. Moguel drew up elaborate plans, which fully convinced Muhammad Ali that the scheme would succeed ; in the following year the Damietta barrage was commenced, and, four years afterwards, that of Rosetta. Unfortunately, Muhammad Ali was in such desperate haste to see the practical results of his enterprise that he afforded wholly insufficient time to Moguel and his staff to complete the work thoroughly, with the consequence that this was hurried on and so indifferently executed that failure—fully anticipated by competent critics—resulted. The unfortunate Moguel suffered the full penalty ; he was dismissed with indignity by

Muhammad Ali's successor, Abbas Pasha, and his professional rival, Mazhar Bey, was summoned to finish the work that Moguel had so laboriously designed and carefully commenced. Finally, in 1861, the work was completed at a cost of £1,800,000, exclusive of the forced labour which had been employed, while a further sum of £2,000,000 was expended upon the erection of entirely unnecessary fortifications.

The scene of operations is located about fourteen miles north of Cairo. The Rosetta barrage has sixty-one arches and two locks, and is 1,512 feet in length ; while the Damietta barrage has sixty-one arches (originally seventy-one) and two locks, its length being 1,750 feet. Two years after completion, namely, in 1863, the gates of the Rosetta barrage were closed in order that no more water might be turned into the Damietta branch ; but almost immediately serious cracks commenced to appear in the structure. In 1867, no fewer than ten openings or arches of the Rosetta barrage detached themselves from the rest of the work, and moved out of place. In 1876 the English engineer, Mr. (later Sir) John Fowler, was called in to report upon the condition of the barrage, and proved that not only was the floor badly cracked, but the foundations were in the same condition, having been made far too shallow. It was pronounced possible to effect repairs, and the sum of £1,200,000 was quoted as necessary for the work. Other British engineers also interested were General Rundall, R.E., and Major H. Brown ; but, in 1883, Rousseau Pasha, Director-General of Public Works, gave it as his opinion that the barrage could only be used as a distributor of the river discharge between the two

branches, and that too much money would be required to effect the necessary repairs. Thus these works were put out of service, and in order to obtain the necessary water the Egyptian Government had to pay a company £26,000 per annum to pump the liquid into one canal only.

In the same year Captain (later Sir) Colin Scott-Moncrieff was despatched to Egypt to make further examination. In a fascinating volume of his busy and brilliant professional life, written by his daughter, the whole story of Sir Colin's services to Egyptian irrigation is related; and extremely interesting it is made to appear. In combination with Mr. (now Sir) William Willcocks, Sir Colin Scott-Moncrieff completed a remarkable engineering achievement, remodelling the irrigation system of Egypt, and placing it upon a permanent and productive basis.

Even then the water-service was found to be insufficient for the continually-expanding agriculture of the country. In 1895, the question was again raised of constructing a large reservoir capable of holding up the water of the Nile and thus controlling the supply. The Egyptian Treasury itself was unable to find the means for building the great reservoir proposed, and financial aid, therefore, had to be found by the British Government. The Assuan reservoir was designed and constructed. The dam measures 1¼ miles in length, and is nearly 100 feet thick at its base, with a maximum height from its foundations of about 130 feet. The greatest difference of level of water above and below the dam is about 67 feet. Constructed of local granite set in Portland cement, the total weight of masonry is over 1,000,000

tons. No fewer than 180 sluice-openings are provided, through which can pass 15,000 tons of water per second. These sluices are left open when the river is in flood, but when the discharge has fallen to 2,000 tons per second, the sluice-gates are gradually closed, and the reservoir, that is the river above the dam, begins to fill up. When full, the reservoir contains 1,000 million tons of water, affecting the depth of the river for a length of 140 miles above the dam. This stupendous work was opened in 1902. But important additions and improvements have been added since, the Irrigation Department having been continually occupied with the preparation or consummation of schemes for the extension of drainage and irrigation, both in Upper Egypt and in the Delta. Of late, a special division of the Irrigation Department has been formed to deal with the Gezira (Sudan) canalisation work, as distinct from that of Egypt, and at the same time a new division has been formed to elaborate the projects for the Upper White Nile for the benefit of the Sudan.

The summer supply of water in the Nile is insufficient in nearly all years for the adequate irrigation of Egyptian cultivated lands at present dependent upon it, and at the same time there is an insistent demand for expansion of cultivation in the new areas now lying fallow for the want of water. The present year (1922) has afforded an example of the evils attending a failing Nile. The supply from the White Nile, which provides the bulk of the summer water, has turned out to be far worse than had been anticipated ; this great tributary to the main Nile has been much lower than in any hitherto recorded year, while the main stream itself (the Blue

SUGAR-CANE SELLERS.

VENDORS OF BREAD AND CAKES.

TYPICAL BAZAAR SCENES.

CLAY WATER-JARS AND RECEPTACLES BESIDE
A WALL OF MUD-BRICK.

Nile) has also been very low. It is obvious that further control of the river is urgently required both to prevent the heavy loss that occurs practically every year, owing to the unavoidable restriction of crops, and to provide additional water for development.

Unfortunately, many bitter and undignified official squabbles have been waged between various engineering authorities as to how the Nile control should be best effected. Elaborate projects drawn up by the Irrigation Projects Department have been attacked by other engineers of such eminence in their profession that their criticisms were bound to attract the serious attention of the responsible authorities. Plans which had been prepared by Sir Murdoch Macdonald, Adviser to the Ministry of Public Works, were bitterly assailed by Sir William Willcocks (formerly Director-General of Reservoir Studies) and Colonel Kennedy (formerly Director of the Public Works Department of the Sudan). In 1920 it was necessary for the Egyptian Government to appoint a Special Commission to enquire into the hostile and damaging criticisms referred to, such Commission being instructed to give to the Egyptian Government its carefully-considered opinion on the projects prepared by the Ministry of Public Works, and in particular to report upon the physical data on which these projects had been based. The Commission, composed of three members—Mr. F. St. J. Gebbie, its President, nominated by the Government of India; Mr. H. T. Cory, nominated by the Government of the United States of America; and Mr. G. C. Simpson, nominated by the University of Cambridge, with Mr. J. L. Capes, a professor of the Egyptian School of

Engineering, as secretary—travelled down the Nile as far as Rejaf, visiting the sites for the proposed Sennar and Gebel-Aulia dams and collecting an abundance of evidence. Upon their return to Cairo, the members of the Commission formed a court to consider the criticisms of Sir William Willcocks and Colonel Kennedy. The enquiry, conducted in public, proved a very long one ; the legal counsel engaged by both sides carried on their cross-examination of witnesses with great acrimony. On June 24, 1920, the court issued its judgment, which said, *inter alia* :—

(1) After careful consideration of all the evidence we are of opinion that there has been no falsification or intentional suppression of records, nor any fraudulent manipulation of data or gauges by Sir Murdoch Macdonald or by anyone else.

(2) We have studied the projects as described in "Nile Control," and have considered the criticisms of these which have been submitted, and we recommend that, considered from a strictly engineering point of view, the White Nile dam, the Gezira Irrigation Scheme, and the Blue Nile dam should be carried out at once.

The decisions arrived at as to future procedure, however, were not altogether unanimous, since Mr. Cory, the American Commissioner, presented a minority report in regard to the division of additional storage water as between Egypt and the Sudan.

The elaborate and impartial investigations of the Commission had a tranquilising effect upon public opinion, which had been greatly disturbed by the serious charges brought by Sir William Willcocks and Colonel Kennedy against not only the efficiency but the honesty of Sir Murdoch Macdonald. The destructive criticisms, moreover, went so far as to foreshadow extreme danger

attending the costly works already carried out. Since these charges were made and disposed of the problem of irrigation in Egypt has received further attention upon the part of the Egyptian Government. A Consultative Committee of the Ministry of Agriculture was formed, and Mr. C. E. Dupuis, formerly Adviser to the Ministry of Public Works, was deputed to investigate the existing irrigation system, and to suggest steps that might be taken to meet, in the immediate future, the agricultural requirements of the country. Mr. Dupuis was not asked to report on the intrinsic importance of the schemes projected or in execution, since these had already been proved from a technical point of view, his enquiry being directed rather to the ascertainment of what were really the most immediate needs of the country, and in which order the schemes decided upon could be most advantageously adopted in order to ensure some immediate productive return.

A good deal will depend upon the amount of success attending the efforts made to raise further funds for the completion of the irrigation works contemplated.[1] The money at the disposal of the Government is now too little to enable the whole or even the greater part of extensions recommended to be carried into effect, and until these have been executed no great extension of the cultivable area can take place. The supply of additional summer water is absolutely essential, and this can be brought about only by the construction of additional storage reservoirs, at this time a very costly undertaking. On the other hand, a good deal can be done by the

[1] Since these lines were written, the necessary financial support has been arranged for with the British Government.—AUTHOR.

further drainage of much of the land of the Nile Delta, which at present gives only comparatively poor returns, and by improving the condition of the existing water supply through the remodelling of the canals.

Improvement in the existing irrigation and drainage system is no doubt urgently needed ; but should funds not permit of the comprehensive scheme suggested, the Government will be compelled to concentrate its attention on removing the defects of the present irrigation and drainage system. The general inadequacy of the main irrigation lines to cope with ideal crop requirements, and during the flood to provide water for washing lands is fully recognised. But the Government without money cannot carry out the improvements suggested. The abnormally large area of land under cultivation puts a very heavy strain on the whole system of the Delta. So soon as the money is available, the Goverment will proceed with a project in the Central Delta, for the complete remodelling of the Bahr Shebin from its head at Zifta barrage to the sea. Other schemes submitted include the Santa Qorashiya project ; a pump-drainage scheme for the Zifta area of Gharbiya ; and several minor projects. In the Western Delta, a complete programme for the gradual widening of the Rayyâh Beheira has been prepared and officially approved, and only awaits the necessary monetary appropriation to be proceeded with.

CHAPTER XV

COTTON—QUALITIES GROWN—EGYPT'S PRODUCTION—LORD KITCHENER'S EFFORTS—IMPORTANCE OF CULTIVATION—POINTS FOR *FELLAHIN*—LANCASHIRE'S REQUIREMENTS—RESEARCH WORK—EGYPTIAN GOVERNMENT PURCHASES—SUSTAINING ALEXANDRIA MARKET—FAILURE OF POLICY—SUGAR—VARIETIES CULTIVATED—FACTORIES ON THE NILE—MACHINERY USED—BRITISH PLANT FAVOURED.

CARLYLE once remarked that "all work, even cotton-spinning, is noble." In Egypt, cotton, like sugar, is a staple product, and in future years will play a part even more vitally important than that of to-day. The plant has been cultivated for thousands of years, as Herodotus has told us; while another early historian, Pliny, has likewise left on record much information on the subject. Until the British introduced much-needed reformed methods of treatment, the plant had always been cultivated in the same defective and wasteful manner. From seed sown in April, the cotton is picked by hand in November and December, whole *fellahin* families being engaged on the business, neglecting practically every other kind of occupation until harvesting-time is over and wages have been gathered in. A large quantity of cotton is yielded by the second harvest from the brown plant, in the month of August, or the second year of its growth. With irrigation and proper cultivation at the time of low spring level of the Nile, as much as 7 kantars (1 kantar = 99·05 lbs.) per feddân can be obtained.

It has been suggested that the Nile Delta, where the best quality of cotton is grown, should be divided up into 10,000 feddân blocks, each having its pumping-station for securing an adequate drainage. By such means it would be possible to bring the total cultivated area of Lower Egypt up to 1,600,000 feddâns, which, at the old average of 5½ kantars to the feddân, would mean a yield of approximately 9,000,000 kantars. To this total could be added another 1,000,000 kantars produced in Upper Egypt, which would give 10,000,000 kantars (1 Egyptian bale = 700–740 lbs.) as Egypt's contribution to the world's production, as against 8,203,000 bales produced from an acreage of 26,519,000 in 1921 in the United States, or 17,500,000 bales in 1914–1915 (1 United States bale = 400–500 lbs.).

No one did more towards encouraging cotton-growing in Egypt than the late Lord Kitchener. Early in 1912, in conjunction with Sir William Garstin (the British Government Director of the Suez Canal) and the late Sir Arthur L. Webb, he carried out many important improvements in connection with the cultivation of the cotton-plant, even recommending an expenditure upon the part of the Government of a sum equalling £20,000,000 to further the project. The British Cotton-Growing Association, representing the cotton trade of Lancashire, and which—for the prosecution of its operations—has received an annual grant of £10,000 from the Government, in 1911 despatched representatives in the persons of Mr. J. Arthur Hulton (Chairman of the Council), Mr. Herbert Whiteley and Mr. Robert Clegg, to enquire into the possibilities of extending cotton cultivation in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

SELLERS OF DATES.

DEALERS IN POULTRY AND CONDIMENTS.

MERCHANTS OF GOULAHS (WATER-JARS).

Cotton

In 1913, the Egyptian people learned something of the practical value attaching to the Assuan Dam and its heightening, for, notwithstanding the low Nile flood of that year (at that time the lowest on record), the cotton crop was saved.

The importance of Egyptian cotton cultivation, which dates from 1820, as part of the world's supply was first established during the Civil War in America some four decades later, namely, 1864. The price rose to an unprecedented height, an experience that was repeated during the recent war, when Egyptian cotton was sold at fabulous figures, and many merchants became millionaires. In recent years, improvements in processes of producing cotton goods have placed a special value on Egyptian cotton. The introduction of mercerising gives to the goods made from Egyptian and a few other qualities of cotton a finish almost equal to that of silk, with the result that Egyptian cotton has commanded a price unheard of since the days of the American Civil War. The well-known Afifi variety, which may be called the "bread-and-cheese" quality of Egypt, has fallen off in recent times, although in ordinary seasons the crop means as much as £6,000,000 to £8,000,000 in the pockets of the Egyptian farmers. As time goes on, and the intelligent native cultivator becomes more proficient, the yield of cotton per acre increases. He has, however, much still to learn in order to avoid deterioration of quality in his product. Four cardinal points are being impressed upon him: (1) Careless seed selection. (2) Over-cropping. (The customary rotation has been reduced from three years to two. It is said that the plants are set in rows much closer together than formerly,

while the number of plants in a row has also been increased.) (3) Crop insect pests, especially the cotton-worm and the boll-worm. (4) Water-logging of the soil. The Cotton Commission has done much to mitigate these evils, and is continually endeavouring to improve the quality as well as to increase the quantity of the Egyptian output.

The various kinds of cotton grown in Egypt, and mostly purchased by Lancashire mills, include the Jannovitch, Upper, Sakel, Abassi, Afifi and Nubar varieties. Lancashire mill-owners often complain, however, about the inferior and different qualities of Egyptian cotton sent over, there being found a very large proportion of bad spinning in every grade of yarn—both coarse and fine counts, as well as frequent careless mixing amongst the cotton during baling. Short pieces of hemp-string and hemp-cloth, cut off the tare cloth during baling, are mixed with it. If these small pieces of string and tare get through to the carding-machine, they are torn up into thousands of short bristles, and every one of these bristles breaks down an end during spinning in the mule. The result on the spinning when this evil reaches the mule is disastrous. One mill manager stated to the writer that out of twenty broken ends that he personally examined during the course of one single day, fifteen had been directly caused by bristles or broken hemp fibre. The best remedy for this evil is to have the bale-covering made from coarse cotton-cloth, and stitched up with cotton-string instead of with hemp.

The average importations of Egyptian cotton into Lancashire in pre-war days equalled a value of £47,000,000 sterling, the bulk of which was retained

DATE PALMS ON ELEPHANTINE ISLAND

THE OUTSKIRTS OF A VILLAGE NEAR LUXOR

for domestic consumption, although a portion was re-shipped to the United States, where fine spinning in the east is progressing rapidly. Other considerable re-exports are made to the Continent, the fact, however, remaining that most of the Egyptian cotton yield is utilised in the production of counts of the Bolton class.

One of the most useful aids to Egyptian agricultural interests introduced under the auspices of the British occupation has been the Cotton Research Board, a body of cotton experts which made a start, and carried out some valuable work, during 1920. The Board is not a separate section of the Ministry of Agriculture with its own technical staff; it is essentially an advisory committee of the heads of the technical section of the Ministry of Agriculture and allied ministries, through whom the Government research work on cotton is controlled. Not only have the greatest British cotton experts been lent to Egypt, but research laboratories of great value, and capable of performing considerable service to cotton agriculture in the future, have been established.

A number of additional official posts were created so as to enable a proportion of men to work in the laboratories, and to devote their whole attention to the subject of research. It proved, however, by no means an easy matter to find sufficiently-qualified candidates for these newly-created technical positions, and even to this date some of the appointments remain unfilled.

During 1920, the research work actually carried out was entirely due to the efforts of the technical sections in existence prior to the creation of the Cotton Research Board; their chief functions were and are to direct all research work on cotton, keeping themselves informed

of all similar work being carried out by other institutions, whether in Egypt or elsewhere, and of the discussion of general problems in connection with the cotton supply of the world and their special application to Egypt. Much advantage to economic interests may be expected in the future from this section of the Government.

A full official cotton report—the first annual issue—is in preparation, and will probably be issued after this volume has gone to press. It is expected, however, to contain a great deal of valuable information as a result of the work which the Research Board has already carried out.

There is also in existence an organisation known as the Egyptian Agricultural Syndicate, while several large native cotton-growers have entered into a combination to control stocks produced locally against future shortage and consequent rise in price. The association wields considerable political influence ; not long since (May, 1922) it induced the Government to restrict cotton acreage as well as to finance cultivators on the security of the staple. When was added a proposal that the Ministry should purchase cotton in order to raise the price in the Alexandria market, the Government evinced some unwillingness to interfere or to promote artificial stimulation of the industry. But the pressure applied proved too strong, and in the end the Egyptian Government, vowing that " they would ne'er consent—consented " ; and finally decided to buy part of the cotton supply of the country in order to force up prices to " the natural level," whatever that might be.

Sound financiers strongly object to governmental action of this kind, and certain Egyptian statesmen have

also firmly said so ; but the Egyptian Administration, whose position is none too secure, is evidently not proof against the interested influence at work, being forced to act against its better judgment. The excuse given by the Minister of Finance (Ismail Pasha Sidky) for yielding was that the margins at Liverpool between American and Egyptian cotton continued to shrink to the detriment of Egyptian cotton, no serious causes having justified such shrinkage. On the contrary, it was declared by the Minister that the statistical position of Egyptian cotton was such " that a reasonable rise in price would be warranted." In these circumstances, Sidky Pasha, completely changing his previously-expressed opinion, considered it was quite in order to check the artificial drop which had been accentuated by speculative manœuvres. Thus, the Government, having created the precedent of interfering and of artificially assisting the Alexandria market, will have to continue upon the same dangerous course.

Early in 1920 cotton at Alexandria was fetching a price round about 20 dollars, at which figure, undoubtedly, the agricultural community could ill afford to bear the increased cost of production. The Egyptian Agricultural Syndicate, therefore, pressed the Cabinet to intervene in the interests of the cultivators, and the acquiescence of the British authorities was only secured by what amounted to very little less than a threat that, unless the Egyptian Government were allowed to step in and assist the Agricultural Syndicate by purchasing the cotton, " political troubles would ensue."

The Cabinet's action in entering the market brought about a temporary rise in the price of the staple ; but,

as might have been foreseen, without the support of overseas buyers, there could be no sustaining of prices. And this support was lacking.

In the following summer season, the ineffectiveness of the intervention was clearly proved and a thoroughly unsound economic position exposed. In the beginning of 1922, prices fell to such an extent that cultivators had little inducement to continue their operations ; nor, indeed, did they, with the result that Egypt produced the lowest cotton-crop on record since official statistics were obtainable. The Government, then putting its large stock on the market, caused a further slump, and a complete glut was the consequence. British authorities, although consulted, were unable to help, pleading that there being no Egyptian Cabinet in existence " to sign official documents " nothing could be decided upon. It was not until March, when a Cabinet was formed under Sawat Pasha, that official action was taken. Then the Finance Minister found his position so unstable without the support of the Syndicate that he was compelled to agree to their proposals. It remains to be added that Mr. Dowson, the British Financial Adviser to the Egyptian Government, pointed out clearly and emphatically that there was absolutely nothing to be gained by shifting the burden from one section of the community to another, and he strongly advised against Government interference.

During the war, when it was necessary that supplies should be controlled and prices stabilised, the British and Egyptian Governments had purchased one or two crops and made a very good profit thereon, the prices charged being about one shilling per pound higher than

LAYING UP FOR THE NIGHT : CREW DEPARTING ON SHORE LEAVE.

NATIVE FELUCCAS AT ANCHOR.

those ruling later. Considerable profits accrued to the cultivators also, and this, no doubt, whetted their appetites to the extent of enticing the Government to again come to their aid.

Cotton is, however, but one of several crops cultivated to advantage in Egypt. Wheat, barley and sugar-cane have been grown for a long period. In regard to the first named, careful observation is maintained of a large number of different types of wheats, both of local origin and imported, especially in regard to their immunity from rust, the strength of their flour and their yield capacity. Varieties possessing together these qualities to a sufficiently satisfactory degree have been propagated in bulk, and tested against one another in variety trials conducted throughout the Delta. The Ministry of Agriculture is to-day in a position to indicate fairly definitely which are the best wheats under cultivation, while it has at its disposal a considerable nucleus of seed for sowing purposes. Varieties possessing one or more desirable characters to a marked extent are kept under observation, and the strains preserved for use in hybridisation work; further, a fairly extensive programme of experiment in methods of cultivation is carried out relative to the optimum, the amount of seed for sowing purposes, method of sowing, manurial requirements, etc.

Sugar, like cotton, is now a staple product of Egypt. The cane is largely cultivated in the northern part of the country for the purpose of being manufactured into sugar. An inferior variety which is eaten raw, introduced from India in the time of the Khalifs, is grown by the *fellahin* in every part of Egypt. At one time, sugar factories were a monopoly of the Khedive, and

mills were erected in rapid succession, principally in the district of Minyeh, not far from Cairo, upon land located between that city and Assiût. The majority of the factories are connected by short branch railway lines, used in harvest-time only, and running considerable distances between the mills and the plantations lying further to the west. The lofty chimneys and corrugated iron roofs of the factories impart a very modern industrial appearance, while at night their flaming furnaces light up the Nile and surrounding country with a weird effect. Practically all the higher officials of the mills are Europeans—mostly Frenchmen. In the sugar season numerous large barges, piled up high with lengths of sugar-cane, and others filled with *fellahin* going to work in the factories, are met with. The spectacle is not attractive.

As far back as 1894, Egypt contained over twenty sugar factories, mostly located near Minyeh, which produced annually about 150,000 tons of sugar, to a value of between £750,000 and £800,000. A considerable addition to the number of factories has taken place of late years, although the plantation area at present cultivated is slightly less than normal. On the other hand, the quality of the sugar produced is superior. Although a considerable amount of French sugar machinery has been installed, many up-to-date mills are now being equipped with plant of British manufacture, including installations supplied by the Mirrlees Watson Company, Ltd., of Glasgow, who also furnished to the Egyptian Government three water-distilling plants, each with a capacity of 350 tons, for use at the ports of Suakin and Port Sudan.

TEMPLE AT EL MEDINA

CHAPTER XVI

EDUCATION—SUPPRESSION UNDER OTTOMAN RULE—YACOUB ARTIN PASHA—LORD CROMER'S OPINIONS—HIGH PERCENTAGE OF ILLITERATES—EL AZHAR UNIVERSITY—POLITICAL INFLUENCE—OUT-OF-DATE AND USELESS METHODS—A MODERN BABEL—TEACHING THE KORAN—LIVING ON THE UNIVERSITY—RELATIONS BETWEEN PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS—SUDAN INSTRUCTION COMPARED—GORDON COLLEGE AT KHARTOUM—NEW STATE UNIVERSITY—LAW, MEDICINE AND POLICE SCHOOLS—ATTENDANCE AND TEACHING AT KUTTABS—ANNUAL COST OF EDUCATION—DEPARTURE OF BRITISH ADVISER.

IT was hardly to be supposed that while Egypt, under the Pashas, lacked the most ordinary enjoyment of justice and freedom, it could know much of the advantages of public education. And yet, without the latter, neither of the former could be properly enjoyed. It is impossible to imagine an educated native of any country sitting down clamly under the régime of official spoliation, oppression and injustice such as were perpetuated from century to century in Egypt previous to its social almost as much as its administrative emancipation at the hands of the British. In keeping the *fellahin* ignorant, the rulers of Egypt succeeded best in maintaining their own power and preserving their own personal safety. Lord Cromer was of opinion—and in this he seems to have been somewhat singular—that it was not so much the lack of will as the want of money that proved the chief obstacle in preventing Pashadom from giving the people some form of education. The

late Proconsul—assuredly one of the greatest that our country has ever known—has told us in his reports and books that the Pashas of Egypt recognised that "the acquisition of knowledge was the sole instrument by the use of which the country might, perhaps, be freed from foreign control; but, at the same time, he showed that the Ottoman rulers of Egypt were themselves too ignorant on educational administration to be able to initiate the only measures which would have satisfied their very limited yearning.

Yacoub Artin Pasha, Minister of Public Education (1889), declared by Lord Cromer to have been "the highest Egyptian authority on educational matters," was so old-fashioned in his ideas that he decided, if a science could not be taught in Arabic it should not be taught at all; while his selection of professors and masters displayed, as a rule, a great deal more impartiality than good judgment. Probably had not the English taken in hand the work of trying to educate the Egyptian there would have been little progress, and more than 90 per cent. of the population would have remained absolutely ignorant of either reading or writing. Even to-day, as a whole, the Egyptian people are shrouded in intellectual darkness comparable to that of the Middle Ages; now that they have been entrusted with the fullest measure of self-government it remains to be seen what advantage they will take of the opportunities of extending and improving their system of public education. Those who know them best entertain but faint hope of any real advancement; nor, indeed, can this take place until and unless a complete reformation of the principal seat of Muhammedan learning, the Univer-

sity of Gami'a-el-Azhar, is itself radically reformed. While the new law, promulgated in 1911, did something useful in the direction of enlarging the number of subjects included in the curriculum of this educational establishment, much ground remains to be covered before the ancient University of Islam can be regarded as a model educational establishment. Lord Kitchener, in his report of 1912, declared that the difference between the former and the actual state in El Azhar was already "very marked." It need have been !

El Azhar University dates from the tenth century, three hundred years earlier than the great Western University of Padua, which, in 1220, seceding from the seminary of Bologna, attracted students and professors from all parts of Europe—including many from far-distant England and Scotland, notwithstanding the dangerous task involved in travelling across Europe to reach its sheltering portals. The Moslem University of El Azhar has always been regarded as the great centre of religious and secular instruction in Egypt. Although it has to-day lost much of the political influence that it once possessed, this university-mosque still wields considerable power, sufficient, indeed, to enable its governors to impose their will in many directions and carry out political preferment as it may please them. This, indeed, was found to be the case in the days of Abbas Hilmi, between whom and the Chief Shiekh of the University more than one violent dispute took place ; upon a celebrated occasion the result of a quarrel was that the revered head of the University, much to the indignation of the whole Muhammedan community, was forbidden to attend the Khedivial Court.

From an European point of view, El Azhar would hardly be considered a "university" at all, since, like most Muhammedan institutions of its kind, it concerns itself almost entirely with teaching the religion of Muhammed and little or nothing of ordinary secular instruction. It has always been more of a monastery or seminary than a university, as we construe the appellation, and the institution still retains that characteristic, notwithstanding the introduction (under the pressure of foreign opinion) of subjects such as algebra, astronomy, drawing, natural history and hygiene. The syllabus, however, is still deficient in subjects comprising modern science, literature, history, philosophy or foreign languages.

Egypt's educational establishments likewise include a school of law, an institute likely to undergo considerable changes in view of the establishment of the new State University that is contemplated. In fact, the subject of legal education in Egypt will have to be entirely reconsidered, apart from whatever recommendations may be contained in a report which has been prepared by the sub-commission of the University Commission, and not yet presented.

There is a School of Cadis which prepares students for positions as magistrates, higher and lower grade clerks, and for the Bar. The total number of pupils has decreased during the past few years, for whereas, in 1913–14, there were 413 students, for the period 1919–20 there were no more than 273. A School of Medicine and a police school also should be mentioned here, especially as the first named has lately sent to England eight medical students for post-graduate study.

Photo by courtesy of [*Mr. Leo Weinthal, O.B.E., F.R.G.S.*

AT THE UNIVERSITY MOSQUE OF AL-AZHAR, CAIRO.

Inset—a student.

The school has between 260 and 300 pupils, and appears to be very adequately staffed. The results attained at some of its examinations show a high level of success. Sir Charles Balance (Vice-President of the Royal College of Surgeons, and a Delegate from the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons) upon one occasion attended the holding of this school's examinations, which he considered to be "very thorough." When certain reforms have been carried out, and a handsome new building, now in course of erection, has been completed, the medical education of Egypt will have been brought into alignment with the best type of University training elsewhere.

It is difficult to draw any comparisons between educational progress in Egypt and that of the adjacent Sudan ; were one to attempt this it would be very much to the disadvantage of the older and more important State. True it is that in deciding upon the awakening of educational interests in the newly-acquired adjoining province, the authorities had no old and hampering institutions to consider, nor any existing and defective system to reconstruct. For their operations the Sudan Administration found themselves on virgin soil, and this they proceeded to cultivate to the best possible advantage. In consequence of the sound and well-thought-out educational programme adopted from the outset, the foundations were laid for a thoroughly comprehensive educational plan, particularly suitable for that country, and the utmost was done with the limited amount of funds disposable. The system comprised elementary schools, instructional workshops, higher primary schools, vernacular training colleges and an upper school, the

latter again being sub-divided into three branches : (*a*) a school for the training of assistant engineers ; (*b*) a secondary school of the ordinary literary type ; and (*c*) a training college for school masters. Hardly any of these advantages available in the Sudan can be claimed by the Egyptian University of El Azhar, and when the reform foreshadowed is being determined it might, perhaps, be well to endow this ancient institution with a system based upon that adopted by the Gordon Memorial College at Khartoum, which, since 1903, has been carrying on such excellent educational service for the rising generations of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

While a large proportion of the students at El Azhar present an unhealthy, uncleanly and half-starved appearance—strict regard for daily ablutions obviously forms no important part of the accepted syllabus of instruction —pupils of the College at Khartoum invariably present a healthy aspect, with a distinct appreciation of the value of personal cleanliness. A considerable proportion of the students of the Gordon College, however, are Egyptians by birth ; and, unfortunately, they unmistakably proclaim their nationality by the bad condition of their eyes and their generally inferior physique.

Instead of devoting months, and even years, to imparting instruction in the Koran, to the almost entire exclusion of other subjects, as has been the practice at El Azhar, at the Khartoum College budding Shiekhs or Ulemas are taught the Koran only during the first three years of their course, and then for no more than three hours in each week during the first year ; for two hours during the second, and for one hour during each week in the third annual term. Moreover, while the Koran

is taught to Moslem boys only, there is a special class for Coptic boys for religious instruction in their own faith.

There are known to be a large number of Muhammedans who to-day ardently wish to see El Azhar University placed upon a footing similar to that enjoyed by the Gordon College, and their head educational institution transformed into a model training university. This reformation could readily be brought about were the native authorities themselves willing; for whereas the Gordon College is comparatively poor, being largely dependent upon voluntary subscriptions, the University of El Azhar is really immensely wealthy, being possessed of enormous accumulated funds, the Principal, who also holds the post of Chief Sheikh, receiving the not inconsiderable annual stipend of £1,200.

El Azhar University dates from A.D. 973. Founded in that year by one Gohar, a Grand Vizier under the Fatemite Sultan Muizz, it was raised to the status of a university in 988; while under all Ottoman rulers alike, its influence, both political and religious, speedily increased. From time to time the building housing the college was structurally extended and restored, the edifice to-day with its six minarets, four on the west side and two on the east, presenting a decidedly imposing appearance, notwithstanding the fact that, like many cathedrals of Europe, the building is closely surrounded by an accumulation of poor residences, and has no sort of ornamental façade.

It is not in any way difficult to obtain permission to inspect the University of El Azhar; but to the European visitor the results are not always found to be

impressive. Entering the building by the principal gateway, known as Bab-el-Muzeiyinin, or "The Gate of the Barbers" (so called, we learn, because students, in the olden days, used to have their heads shaved in the precincts), the visitor is passed through a series of inner halls and courts, finally finding himself in a vast, covered shed—or open courtyard—actually the Liwan-el-Gamia, or great mosque-court, which encloses an area of some 3,600 square yards, and is surmounted by a roof supported by no fewer than 140 marble columns, of which over one hundred are said to be genuinely antique, but doubtless stolen at various opportunities from other religious or secular buildings. This enormous hall now forms the principal apartment of instruction.

When the visitor, who may have entered directly from the blazing sunshine without, recovers somewhat his powers of vision in the imperfectly-lighted hall, he finds himself in one enormous single building, divided off into three or more sections, each section being again partitioned or railed off into separate compartments by colonnades. In each of these compartments is collected a crowd of noisy students, each group with its own professor or Sheikh, but all alike squatted, cross-legged, in true Oriental fashion, on the bare floor or on straw mats, with robes carefully tucked away in front, and each with his shoes removed, placed by the side. Some few of the instructors are seated at small, low tables. Students sit or lounge carelessly about in a circle, some listening to their teacher, some chattering upon extraneous subjects, others diligently taking notes, notwithstanding the unceasing babble of voices going on. The effect produced by this confusion of voices, for all are

speaking (some in different dialects), reciting or intoning at the same time, is amazing and even disconcerting ; its cumulative effect can only be compared to that created by similar gatherings of the Faithful upon high feast-days in the Mosque of Sofia, at Constantinople, or that of Sultan Hassan, at Cairo, or, yet again, a high Catholic saint's day at St. Peter's, when the Sovereign-Pontiff is expected to officiate or to be present. Immediately a student declares himself competent to recite by heart or to explain in a more or less coherent manner the whole of the sacred book which is being studied by his class, the Sheikh makes a note in his copy of the work, thereby imparting authority to the student himself to lecture on this particular work.

El Azhar University is, however, something more than a mere teaching institution ; it is also a largely-populated residential establishment. Of the total number of students attending—between 7,000 and 7,500, instructed by some 250 professors—over 1,000 sleep and board under the vast roof of the building. In view of the fact that students pay no fees, but, on the other hand, are charitably supported by an annual subsidy from the endowments of the Mosque, it is hardly surprising that some of them should elect to remain thus comfortably provided for for between five and ten years, while others spend the whole of their lives at the University, having, indeed, no other kind of home.

A portion of the University's large funds are set apart especially for the maintenance and instruction of blind students. Unfortunately, in Egypt their number is large, the affliction being nearly always contracted from disease.

While pupils pay no fees, professors receive no salaries, either from the Mosque or from the Government; those teachers who may happen to live outside the University support themselves by giving instruction in private houses or by copying manuscripts, or again, by filling a minor religious office to which some kind of remuneration is attached. Neither are these poor professors above receiving gratuities from some of the wealthier of their pupils.

Under such conditions, unknown to any but an Oriental country, the degree of orderliness and discipline maintained in the establishment may be gauged. The most conspicuous defect in an Egyptian student's education is to be found in the entire absence of any independent thought. In consequence he becomes a mere recipient of a knowledge of the past, and of an absolutely useless acquaintance with the Koran.

The days of El Azhar's supremacy as a national educational centre are probably, or will soon be, over. Before the late transition in the political status of Egypt was brought about, considerable progress had been made in the direction of establishing a State University which would absorb under one organisation the various professional colleges of Egypt. It is proposed to create a National University with seven faculties, namely, arts, science, medicine (including departments of pharmacy and dental surgery), law, engineering and technology, agriculture (including a department of factory science), commerce and economics, and special departments of education such as those of Oriental studies and archæology. The new University will be a teaching institute, and, as far as possible, of a residential type. Its financial

RUINS OF PORTICO AT THE TEMPLE OF LUXOR

and administrative business will be in the hands of a body to be called the University Court, while the educational business and the control of academic policy will be mainly directed by the Senate and the Faculties. The Government will be represented by the Minister of Education, acting *ex officio* as Chancellor of the University, and also by members nominated by the various Ministries and Departments for a term of years.

When, at the chief educational institution of the country, such practices as those described of educating the rising generation exist, it would be unwise to expect anything better or more practical in minor institutions, such as the village schools or *kuttabs*, which, attached to most of the mosques, form the only other purely Moslem educational establishments. Here, again, Egypt has much to learn from the Sudan, whose people have been taught by a paternal and benevolent Administration to recognise the advantages of education. The pleasure evidenced by the generality of Sudanese boys in their school hours—fully as much as in those of their recreation—is readily noted by the visitor; no one can doubt that the moral and intellectual welfare of these little fellows is arranged and carried out with particular care. In every district where Government schools are established they are well filled, without any necessity to introduce compulsory attendance.

The Egyptian *kuttabs*, on the other hand, are but indifferently patronised, while the course of instruction followed, according to Mr. Hughes (author of the *Dictionary of Islam*), is as follows:—

The child who attends the seminaries is first taught his alphabet, which he learns from a small board on which the letters are written by

the teacher. He then becomes acquainted with the numerical value of each letter. After this he learns to write down the ninety-nine names of God, and other simple words taken from the Koran. When he has mastered the spelling of words, he proceeds to learn the first chapter of the Koran and then the last chapter, and gradually reads through the whole Koran in Arabic, which he usually does without understanding a single word of it. Having finished the Koran, which is considered an incumbent religious duty, the pupil is instructed in the elements of grammar, and, perhaps, a few simple rules of arithmetic.

Something a little over £1,000,000 sterling has hitherto been devoted annually to the cause of public education in Egypt, a sum that cannot be considered in any way excessive, since it amounts to no more than 2½ per cent. of the whole State Budget, or, if educational revenue be deducted, 1·7 per cent. The alleged "increased desire" of the people to have their children educated will hereafter have an unfettered opportunity of asserting itself, and it will be interesting to watch what the newly-formed native Ministry of Education will do in the future. For one thing, it will certainly have to build new schools, for, under present conditions, no fewer than 97 small, separate buildings are engaged for school purposes, most of them being entirely unsuitable or unsatisfactory. All told, there are no more than 3,980 schools, with a total attendance of 279,310 (of whom 375,599 are boys and 41,711 girls), a total which, compared with an estimated population of fourteen millions, appears little less than ridiculous.

The Egyptian Ministry of Education lost a valuable adviser when Mr. R. S. Patterson retired in April last, after a long and honourable career; he filled a difficult post with much distinction for nearly twenty years.

WASTE LANDS OF EGYPT.

GOAT AND SHEEP PASTURES.

"WHERE ONCE A CITY STOOD."

A ROCKY PASS NEAR THE NILE.

CHAPTER XVII

THE LAW—APPOINTMENT OF JUDICIAL ADVISER—THE FIRST SELECTION—THE LATE SIR JOHN SCOTT—CAPITULATIONS—THEIR ORIGIN, USES AND ABUSES—LORD CROMER'S OPINIONS—FUTURE STATUS OF FOREIGNERS—MIXED TRIBUNALS—CONFUSED JUDICIAL SYSTEM—"A LEGISLATIVE BABEL"—DIGNITY OF ERMINE IMPERILLED—SALARIES OF JUDGES—APPEAL FOR INCREASE—ALTERNATIVE TO A REFUSAL.

OWING to the change in the status of Egypt, the position of the Mixed Courts has become more important than before, and, hereafter, the Judicial Adviser, who will remain under the new régime, will devote himself more particularly to matters concerning the Mixed Tribunals and the administration of justice as affecting foreigners.

It was owing to the Egyptian Government's confessed inability to deal with the condition of brigandage and crime in the last decade of the past century that an Englishman was appointed to the post of Judicial Adviser. Naturally, great difficulty was experienced in selecting a suitable occupant, since he would have not only to be acquainted with Egyptian law and with that of his own country, but with the French legal system. At length, however, selection fell upon Mr. (afterwards Sir) John Scott. His appointment proved very unpopular, not only in Egyptian but in British circles. In fact, the Prime Minister of Egypt (Riaz Pasha) resigned rather than consent to Mr. Scott remaining; but the latter's selection proved in the end to have been a highly

fortunate one, for, dating from the time of his taking office, February, 1891, to the date of his resignation, October, 1898, the judicial system in Egypt underwent great amelioration and gained not alone considerable strength but much added dignity.

Some doubt has been expressed as to the future rights and privileges of Europeans under Egypt's new administration. The altered constitution now being formulated will involve the partial if not the entire abolition of the Capitulations, comprised under the name given by Europeans to those concessions which secured from the early Sultans of Turkey extra-territorial rights to foreigners residing there in continuation of similar privileges granted to foreign residents as long ago as the days of the Byzantine Empire.

Here it may be pointed out that although the rights above cited continue in existence to-day, and will remain under the *status quo* regarding the position of other Powers in Egypt, and for British residents until the termination of the British Protectorate has become an accomplished fact, the Capitulations did not originally confer them. They are the survival of mediæval and of even earlier times when infidels and Moslems were, so to speak, at daggers drawn. "Capitulation," as construed in those days, was a gracious concession or "letter of privilege," conferred by the proud and omnipotent Sultans on the much-despised unbeliever, enabling the latter to trade with, and dwell in, the Levant. In the first centuries of the Hegira (the epoch of the flight of Muhammad from Mecca, whence he was expelled A.D. 622) the Moslem potentates declined to accord the rights and privileges of citizenship under any circum-

stances to the infidel stranger within their gates, who thus became more or less an outlaw. It became very evident to the Khalifs, however, that the unbelieving trader was becoming more and more necessary to their subjects ; and so, in order to protect Christian merchants from outrage to which their outlawed position and religion exposed them, the Commander of the Faithful and his successors accorded certain States a "letter of privilege," or imperial diploma, otherwise known as Capitulations, whereby he swore to grant his great protection as well as extra-territorial jurisdiction to any subjects who chose to settle or trade within his dominions.

When Egypt became a Turkish province, the Capitulations were extended to that country also, the Powers enjoying them being, before the war, fifteen in number, namely, Great Britain, the United States of America, France, Italy, Spain, Holland, Belgium, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Greece, Portugal, Russia, Germany and Austria-Hungary. With the signing of the Treaties of Versailles and St. Germain, the privileges of the two latter countries were terminated, and have not, so far, been renewed. In Egypt the rights conferred on foreigners by the Capitulations, apart from certain commercial concessions, included immunity from personal taxation without the assent of their Governments ; inviolability of domicile from protection of arbitrary orders ; and exemption from the jurisdiction of the local courts.

Since the creation of the Mixed Tribunals in 1876, the practical effects of the last-named privilege have been that no legislation applicable to foreigners could be enforced without the consent of the capitulatory.

Powers, and that civil jurisdiction in cases between Europeans and natives, or between Europeans of different nationalities, is exercised by the Mixed Courts, while criminal jurisdiction for Europeans and jurisdiction in civil cases between Europeans of the same nationality is exercised by Consular Courts applying the laws of their own countries.

More than one British statesman having relations with Egypt has expressed himself averse to the continuation of the Capitulations. Lord Cromer was a particularly hostile critic, declaring that "the Capitulations impaired those rights of internal sovereignty which are enjoyed by the rulers or legislators of most States." At the same time, the great Proconsul admitted that, while nothing could be said in favour of the abuse, many valid arguments might be advanced in defence of the use of Capitulations. Others have thought the same, for the restrictions which the Capitulations imposed upon the sovereign rights of Egypt have had a good as well as a bad side. In so far as they protect the liberties and property of foreigners by ensuring them justice in the courts and immunity from arbitrary action on the part of the local authorities, their operation is beneficent. But, on the other hand, by exempting foreigners from taxation (the only internal taxes to which foreigners are at present liable are house and land taxes) and from the necessity of conforming to local laws and regulations of an equitable kind, they constitute a great and unjustifiable hindrance to the progress of the country. For this reason it has always been the policy of Great Britain to get rid of the Capitulations and to substitute for them a system which, while protecting all legitimate foreign

ASSUAN

VIEW ACROSS THE BURIAL GROUND AT THEBES

interests, would put an end to the indefensible privileges which foreigners enjoy.

For many years past negotiations to secure this object have been going on between Great Britain and the other Powers who have capitulatory rights in Egypt; but the Powers in question cannot be expected to give up these rights unless they are assured that their nationals can rely on obtaining justice and fair treatment in the future. The disappearance of international fetters in Morocco as the result of the Franco-German Agreement in 1911 gave rise to the hope that the same clean sweep of the Capitulations and the Consular Courts in Egypt might occur; but the judicial machinery employed on the banks of the Nile has always been so complicated that the removal of these objections has proved a far more difficult affair than the abolition of selfsame international rights in Morocco, Tunis, Algeria and Tripoli.

In order to be able to give some assurance to protect foreign subjects Great Britain must be in a position enabling her to implement it. Obviously, it is to Egypt's own interest to empower Great Britain to act as the protector of such privileges as are now enjoyed by foreigners in Egypt, as it is just and reasonable to maintain them. It is in this sense that the recognition in the Peace Treaties of Great Britain's special position in Egypt should be interpreted.

Hitherto, Egypt has been the unfortunate possessor of no fewer than four judicial systems, which, when they did not directly interfere with the efficient administration of the land, invariably managed so to clash with one another that a good deal of harm was done to civil, commercial and financial elements. It has been said

with a good deal of truth that one can get justice dispensed in the land of the Pharaohs according to one's nationality, religion and nature of one's case.

The judges of the Mixed Tribunals consist of natives and foreigners, who give their verdicts in accordance with Egyptian law founded on that of France and Italy. In the days of the Khedives, who usually appointed judges from qualified officials nominated by the Great Powers, cases, in which the Prince was interested or in which the Egyptian Government were concerned, were tried before this tribunal, which includes courts of first and second instance. The courts of the first instance are located at Cairo, Alexandria and Mansûra; while a delegation is located at Port Said. The Appeal Court is at Alexandria. Lists of qualified barristers are exhibited in the ante-rooms of all the courts. Cases between natives, as well as all criminal trials, are laid before the native courts, which are located at Cairo, Alexandria, Benisuef, Assiût and Keneh, and others (with more limited jurisdiction) at Tanta and Mansûra. The Criminal Appeal Court is at Cairo. About one-half of the number of judges are Europeans, and the procedure adopted is based upon the Code Napoléon.

Lord Cromer indignantly characterised the Mixed Tribunals as "a legislative Babel," for they had confused more than ever the laws which rule the inhabitants of Egypt. What is required is a Central Supreme Court of Appeal to which all jurisdictions can resort, and the creation of a system of legislature for the enactment of laws binding equally on both Europeans and natives. No doubt—sooner or later—it will come into existence. A unification of jurisdiction is, of course, the simplest solution

SITTING CAMEL AWAITING RECEPTION OF BURDEN.

LOADING MERCHANDISE ON A CAMEL.

of the question, and one of the last tasks undertaken by the late Lord Cromer before he left Egypt was the preparation of an elaborate plan whereby all these difficulties would be definitely settled by the appointment of an International Legislative Council and the institution by them of Central Law Courts superseding all existing jurisdiction.

There can have been few countries where the law has been placed in a more ridiculous and undignified position than Egypt. Continual squabbles between the Mixed Courts and the Supreme British Consular Courts and between both and the Court of Appeal, have taken place, the majesty of the ermine having suffered considerably. As recently as May of this year (1922) the judges of the Mixed Courts showed a sulky and undignified attitude on account of their salaries not being as large as they wished for. The judges contend that owing to the change in status of Egypt the position of the Mixed Courts has become more important and that their salaries should, therefore, be raised to a level commensurate with their increased dignity, more especially as the rates of their remuneration have not been increased since 1875, and at present are quite inadequate to meet the cost of living on a proper scale. In this contention there seems to be some reason. The Egyptian Government having proved itself unsympathetic to the appeal, however, the judges have taken their grievance to the Judicial Adviser, as representing the authority protecting foreign interests in Egypt. That official has furtively and futilely expressed his " deep sympathy " with the judges' complaint, but he much regrets his official inability to assist them. Thus nothing remains but an appeal to their respective diplomatic representatives to bring concerted pressure on the Egyptian Government, and if this fails—a strike ?

CHAPTER XVIII

RAILWAY SYSTEMS—COMBINED ADMINISTRATION A FAILURE—BRITISH CONTROL BRINGS PROSPERITY—LONG JOURNEYS—SPEED AND SAFETY—CAPE-TO-CAIRO ROUTE—A COMMEMORATIVE PUBLICATION—CONSTRUCTION DURING WAR—DECAUVILLE LIGHT LINES—OASES RAILWAYS—THE ROUTE OF THE EXODUS?—STEAMSHIP CONNECTIONS—GREEK LINES—FREIGHTS AND "RINGS"—SHIPPERS' MISGIVINGS.

PERHAPS one of the most practicable of countries in which to construct railways, there being neither steep mountains to climb or to tunnel, severe gradients to overcome nor torrential rivers to cross, Egypt possesses a transportation system of but minor worth and management. At one time, also, railway construction and administration in Egypt were comparatively cheap; but during and since the war the costs have increased enormously, due not only to the enhanced price of material of all descriptions but to the rise in wages. Some idea of the expense of working the line, owing to circumstances declared to be beyond the power of the management to control, may be gathered from the following figures:—The cost of laying one kilometre of line, in 1913, was £E1,500; in 1921, the cost was £E4,800 to £E5,800, according to whether wood or steel sleepers were used; the wages of labour of all classes rose from £E1,173,654, in 1913, to £E3,368,450, in 1921; the price of coal before the war was about PT. 130 per ton, and the total cost

£E334,000, whereas in 1921 and 1922 over £E3,100,000 had to be provided for coal.

The first line of railway to be constructed in Egypt, in 1856, was from Alexandria to Cairo, the contractor being no other than the celebrated Robert Stephenson. Two years later, the overland route to India was laid from Cairo to Suez, and this proved, at least, a brilliant financial success. After the lapse of another ten years a line was laid from Suez to Ismailia, half-way between Port Said and the then newly-constructed Suez Canal. At one time the trains stopped at Ismailia in order to land passengers from the steamers passing through the canal; but this practice was subsequently abandoned. Overland traffic between Alexandria and Suez then gave place to that between Cairo and Suez, while some years later a standard-gauge track was laid from Port Said to Ismailia, thus making possible a through journey from Cairo to Port Said.

In 1868, construction of the line from Cairo southwards to Minia had been commenced, and in 1891 the prolongation was completed to Assuan, the present southern terminus. Here commences the narrow-gauge track (3 feet 6 inches) to Luxor, the necessary change-over for passengers and freight proving both uneconomical and inconvenient. It was hoped at one time that the whole system would be converted to the same gauge, that is to say that the stretch of narrow track would be widened from 3 feet 6 inches to the broad gauge, 4 feet 6 inches; and, as a fact, the improvement was under consideration before the war. It was then abandoned, and has not since been reconsidered; nor is it likely to be in view of the great political change which has taken

place in Egypt and the unremunerative return now made by the railways.

For the last six-and-forty years Egyptian railways have been under combined foreign administration. In 1876, a Board was constituted to administer them ; but there was never any conceivable reason why it should have occupied the special position it did outside the regular Civil Service. When Lord Farrar and Colonel Marandin were sent out, in 1887, to report upon the condition of the Egyptian railways, they found a wholly unsatisfactory state of affairs in existence, and recommended a drastic reorganisation. But it was not until 1904 that the management was put under one head instead of under three or more officials, all equally irresponsible and sometimes even mutually antagonistic. Following Sir Charles Scotter's visit in 1905, the Egyptian railway administration was again reformed, and, at the same time, placed in funds (exceeding £3,000,000 sterling) for new rolling-stock and equipment. A decided improvement thereafter took place. How great proved the advance in efficiency and popularity may be gleaned from the fact that, whereas in 1890 the Egyptian railways had carried 4,700,000 passengers and 1,683,000 tons of goods, sixteen years later (in 1906) they were transporting 22,550,000 passengers and 20,036,000 tons of goods. Since those days further advancement in the condition of the lines has been made, although perfection has still to be attained. The State Railways now carry annually an average of over 31,000,000 passengers, of which total some 1,000,000 passengers are first-class, 3,200,000 second-class, and the remainder third-class, while the trains run between 12,000,000 and 13,000,000 kilo-

HALL OF COLUMNS IN KOM OMBO

metres over the 1,723 miles of line open to traffic (see page 195).

For such a small mileage the staff may be considered excessively large. This consists of 20,115 men in receipt of daily payment, apart from 7,630 unpensionable, who are paid monthly, and 3,318 who are pensionable. The wage-bill must continue to prove excessive so long as a heavy list of superfluous barnacles is maintained. While ample accommodation has always to be found for third-class passengers, the management, in view of the large number of tourists who visit Egypt each season, naturally must give attention to accommodation in the first- and second-class.

The Egyptian State Railways do not exceed 1,585 miles of standard-gauge track, in addition to about 138 miles of narrow-gauge. Owing to the thinly-populated character of the country, except in the cities, and the wide distances existing between the various stations, of which—on this system—there are 354 open to traffic, long runs are the rule. The longest is from Cairo to Luxor, about 424 miles, and occupying no less than thirteen hours. According to British calculation, a train would be deemed to take an unconscionable time in performing the journey at no greater average than 32 miles on the flat. The stoppages *en route*, although not many, are lengthy ; a good deal of time is wasted at each station, even when little freight has to be handled, the interval being mainly devoted to gossip among the officials.

Immediately the war was over, the Egyptian State Railways commenced to carry out a programme of main-line renewals, long urgently needed, the cost of which

has been charged partly to capital and partly to revenue. The bridges of Abu Tig and Abu Shuth were rebuilt, and progress made with the construction of the new railway and road-bridge over the Nile at Embaba. In a short while the new station at Alexandria will be completed, while land has been purchased at Sharabia for the Cairo goods-yard extensions.

The Egyptian State Railways management prides itself upon the fact that it maintains "safety" as the first consideration; but those who have travelled on their lines are of opinion that safety would in no way be imperilled by a little more expedition in the reception and despatch of trains at and from the various stations. Punctuality is usually observed at the departure, and the traveller's hopes are encouraged by this good beginning and the belief engendered that similar attention to schedule-time will be observed throughout. But this is far from proving the case upon the daily run between Cairo and Luxor, or that between Cairo and Alexandria, a distance of no more than 130 miles occupying four hours, according to schedule. One reason for the lack of speed is to be found in the fact that the engine-drivers are mostly Egyptians; the "safety first" advocates on the management consider that a speed of anything over thirty miles an hour with an Egyptian driver in charge would be risking the lives of the passengers. That there should be, under the circumstances, an absence of accidents arising from excessive speed can be appreciated.

How the railways will fare under the new and enlarged scope of self-government accorded to the Egyptians remains to be seen; but it seems neither probable nor desirable that British management should be completely

dispensed with, nor that the British Adviser to the Minister of Communications should find his place occupied by an Egyptian. When the railways are finally handed over to the new Egyptian Government they will not be a paying proposition, since, owing to the cost of material already referred to and the enormous wages-bill which, under the new régime, is not likely to be lessened, it is not anticipated that the railways can earn their way in this or the next financial year. The British military authorities have paid to the Egyptian State Railways an award of £900,000 on account of transport provided since the end of the war.

A month or two before the European War broke out, the Egyptian Government entered into an arrangement to complete the sale of the Helwân Railway and for some modification of the agreement made with the Egyptian Delta Light Railways, an arrangement the utility of which could not, at the time, have been foreseen. Under the original concession granted to the company, the Light Lines were to revert to the Government in 1872 with payment; but in March, 1914, the Government agreed to the entire cancellation of the reversion of these properties without payment, thereby making the concessions indeterminate except by purchase. At the same time the Administration agreed to the postponement, from the year 1927 to 1938, of the right to purchase, and the substitution of new terms which ensure the repayment in full of the share and debenture capital should the right of purchase be eventually exercised. There is no reason to suppose that, under the new form of government with which Egypt has been endowed, any modification in the terms of this agreement will be

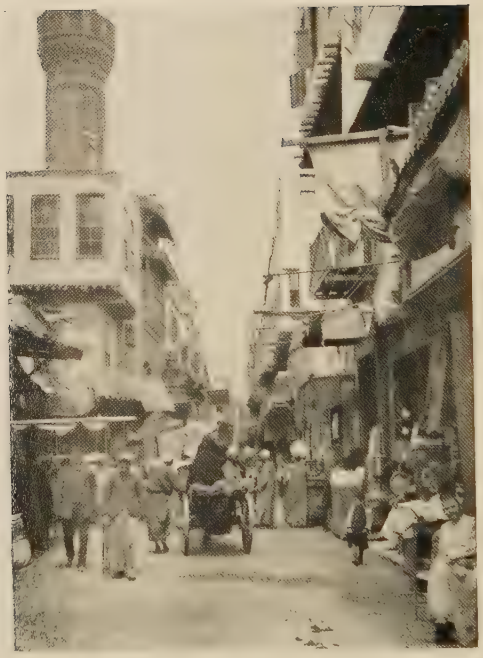
made ; but, on the other hand, the company may be called upon by an unsympathetic native administration to so increase expenditure on the maintenance of its railway property that, owing to heavy construction costs and the continual advance of wages, the outlay may prove of serious consequence.

In the meantime, the Cape-to-Cairo Railway is gradually approaching completion. It is thought that in about four years' time, when the Benguella Railway connects with the Belgian Congo Railway at Katanga, it will be possible for the venturesome traveller to cross Africa from Lobito Bay, on the west coast, to Beira or Mombassa on the east, or, at its junction with the Cape-to-Cairo line, to run either southward to the Cape or northward towards Cairo. This feat, however, even if accomplished, will not mean that the Cape-to-Cairo Railway will have been completed and open to traffic. Much will still remain to be done in the way of forging the last missing link between the Cape and Cairo, which will also call for the extension of the present Sudan railway system southwards. Under the most favourable conditions this cannot be looked for earlier than ten or twelve years hence. The Cape–Cairo line, having already reached Bukama, on the navigable Congo, one can travel to-day from Cape Town, partly by train and partly by river steamers, to Stanleyville, a distance of 3,600 miles, of which nearly 3,000 miles can be accomplished by railway.

To commemorate the conception and construction of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway, there is in active preparation perhaps the most comprehensive and sumptuous publication yet issued in the English language. Bearing the

PACK ANIMALS APPROACHING A TOWN.

TRAIN AT A SUBURBAN STATION.



A NARROW THOROUGHFARE AVAILABLE FOR SMALL CARTS ONLY.

appropriate and attractive title of *The Story of the Cape to Cairo: Railway and River Route*, it will relate in four superb illustrated volumes the whole history of the great project from its conception in 1887, by the Imperial-minded Rhodes, to the present time. Years of thought have been given to this unique literary enterprise by the originator, Mr. Leo Weinthal, O.B.E., F.R.G.S., Editor-in-Chief, and one of the most successful and talented of contemporary journalists, a great connoisseur of art as applied to newspaper and book illustration, and the wielder of a fluent and cultured pen. Mr. Weinthal's magnificent work has been so arranged that the reader is carried, progressively and pleasurably, stage by stage upon his long journey across the African continent from the Cape to the Nile Delta, his personal guides throughout being practically every well-known statesman, diplomatist and scientist who has, or has had, even the remotest connection with the continent of Africa. Assuredly never before has so representative or brilliant a côterie of contributors been engaged in collaboration upon one work; and if for no other reason than this Mr. Weinthal's labours would have achieved a notable triumph.

The current year (1922) will witness the first organised journey over the Cape-to-Cairo route, an escorted tour under the direction of Sir Alfred Sharpe, K.C.M.G., C.B., a distinguished sportsman, explorer and administrator, and one of the greatest living authorities upon tropical Africa. The tour has been organised by Messrs. Thos. Cook & Son, whose thirty years' travel service in Egypt should warrant that the handling of the difficult but attractive undertaking will be conducted with skill and success.

One of the firm's members accompanies the party, whose membership has been strictly limited to eight (men).

The proposal is to leave Marseilles on December 22, 1922, the journey occupying five months and including seven weeks' *safari* (which term, on this occasion, may be construed as meaning a series of hunting expeditions into the interior in search of wild game, including hippo, rhino, giraffe, water-buffalo, lion, etc., etc.), the party being due back in England on May 21, 1923. The cost of this pioneer journey across the African continent will be £1,500 for each participant, a not unreasonable charge in view of the remarkable interest and novelty of the undertaking.

It will be interesting and instructive to learn, as we doubtless shall in due course, how many of the venturesome travellers—" adventurers " would be an appropriate term—come through the ordeal of their seven months' journey—especially those 89 miles which must be made on foot from Rejaf to Nimule. The survivors will have much to tell respecting the ravages of the fearsome mosquitoes and other stinging, poisonous insects which haunt every yard of this *via purgatoria*, as well as of the intense tropical heat encountered on the steamer-journey from Khartoum to Rejaf, and that on Lake Albert to Butiaba. It will unquestionably prove a strenuous undertaking, one calling for great mental endurance, constitutional strength and temperamental fortitude ; none but those physically fit, dispositionally patient and financially resourceful should venture to enter upon it. It may be taken as certain that to those who will have succeeded in progressing thus far the view of the railway line at Kimberley will be a joyous sight—no less than

the "liner" in Table Bay, awaiting to receive them, tired but triumphant, into its hospitable and solacing keeping.

In addition to the State Railways, there are two other Government-owned systems, the Auxiliary Railways of Upper Egypt, owning 282 miles of standard-gauge, and the Western Oases Railways, with a length of 141 miles (of 75-centimetre gauge), connecting the Oases of Khaga with the Nile Valley. By the completion of a swing-bridge at Kantara, in March, 1918, direct railway communication between Cairo and Palestine was established. This bridge, however, no longer exists, since it was removed in 1921 with the idea of replacement by a tunnel made under the canal. The Rafa-Haifa line was continued as far as Kantara to join up with the existing railways of Egypt, passengers and freight, on arriving there, being transported across the Suez Canal.

The Decauville system of light railways, which proved eminently useful in many parts of the world, particularly India and South America, was largely used in Egypt during the war. Tracks were laid along the Suez Canal from one large camp to another, the rolling-stock consisting of open trucks, passenger coaches being deemed unnecessary luxuries ; but towards the end of the army's occupation a certain number of covered trucks were employed. For the use of the troops and of the railway garrisons a bathing train was also run on most afternoons, remaining for two hours at the Ferry. Mr. Martin S. Briggs, in his interesting book *Egypt in War Time*, tells us that sanitary trains, "comprised of some closed vans, built of strong metal plates, were connected by a pipe with the locomotive ; thus provided with steam, the train

was run up and down the country for the purpose of disinfecting camps, together with the men's clothing and uniforms." As many as 350 kits were treated simultaneously, thus enabling the troops to get rid of some of the many troublesome parasites which afflicted them, proving as great a bane to those grilling in the desert of Egypt as to others shivering from cold in the trenches of France.

The services of those scientists who devoted their attention to "delousing"—an unpleasant but a now medically-accepted expression—the troops quartered in Egypt and Palestine, cannot have been too highly praised. Among them have been several who, sooner or later, fell martyrs to their devotion, not the least distinguished having been Arthur Bacot, who, after four years of acute physical suffering, contracted in the cause of science, died at Cairo, in April, 1922, of typhus. He it was who abundantly confirmed the suspicion that the stegomyia mosquito is responsible for the horrid disease known as yellow fever. Mr. Bacot's complete reports upon the binomics of the pestilential creature, compiled for the Yellow Fever Commission, notwithstanding the fact that he had very little medical knowledge, are prized as invaluable contributions to scientific history. To his own undoing—for he died, at a little over fifty years of age, from the contagion—he closely investigated the ravages of typhus infection arising from the excreta of infected lice.

Even the little-known, and still less-frequented, Libyan Desert, as a consequence of the war, was endowed with a modern—but a very unpretentious—railway. A considerable part of the track was laid during hostilities

NUBIAN SETTLEMENT IN THE DESERT

ASSUAN, VIEW FROM FORT TAGUG

in order to meet, and overcome, the danger attending the attacks by the nondescript but exceedingly troublesome tribesmen of the Sunussi, such as those carried out at Marmarika and Siwa in November 1915, March 1916, and January 1917. A line from Oasis Junction, about three miles from Cairo, runs to Kharga, extending thence to Gara and Sherika, Gara being the locomotive headquarters of the Western Oases Railway. The line crosses the desert for over one hundred miles, following very closely, for part of the route, the centuries-old camel track whereon passed and repassed the earliest traders carrying their cargoes of dates and wines from Egypt to Darfûr, now a province of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. Several steep gradients are met with, and the journey is sometimes rendered slow and exceedingly trying to travellers by a violent wind which blows across the unprotected plateau. It renders human life almost intolerable by reason of the clouds of gritty dust raised, penetrating every door, window, crack and cranny of the carriages, and settling down thickly upon everything and everyone.

The Oasis of Kharga (referred to in ancient times as Kenemet) lies almost due west of the town of Esneh. It is also known by the simple name of *the* "Great Oasis." Other notable oases (the inhabitants of which, however, although not Egyptians, were still subject to the Kings of Egypt) are Dakhel, located to the west of Kharga ; Farafra, to the north-west of the Great Oasis ; Bahriyek, to the north-east of Parafra and Dakhel ; Siwa, the most northerly of all the oases ; Sekhet-kemam ; and, finally, "The" Oasis, without other geographical identification. Egyptian garrisons were kept in all of

these oases, and formed "outposts of empire." At one time, according to historical authorities, there must have been a considerable trade carried on between the people living in the various oases of Egypt, for the wines of Kenemet and the dates of Sekhet-amit and the salt of Sekhet-kemam became famous throughout the Nile Valley.

It is to be feared that the Western Oases Railway, in spite of its enterprise and industry in building and conducting such an undertaking, can return but little in the way of profit to its proprietors ; the task of keeping its exposed track free from burial under sandstorms —one such completely destroyed and covered for ever from human view the proud army of fifty thousand men sent by Cambyses, King of Persia, to conquer his enemies the Ammonians—must prove in itself costly and discouraging.

The Maharia Military Railway was likewise a product of the late war, the terminus being at Bahnassa, near the village of that name, on the other side of the Bahr-Yussuf (Joseph's River), distant about 130 miles from Cairo. The Military Railway of Palestine was built and opened in 1916, running for many miles across the desert to El Arish, a route traversed long centuries ago by the hosts of the rival kings of Egypt and Persia, doubtless bent upon mutual invasion or defence. This same route is claimed, by certain accepted authorities upon Biblical history, to have been the identical scene of the Israelites' wanderings after their exodus from Egypt. If we may accept the opinions of writers like Dean Stanley, Professor Sayce, Sir William Willcocks and Dr. Brugsch, all men eminent in their way and

worthy of consideration, it was here, and not along the Red Sea, that the veritable escape occurred. It is an interesting question, but one which no scientist can now by any argument satisfactorily settle.

Like doctors thus, when much dispute has past,
We find our tenets just the same at last.

Egypt has always been, and remains, one of the most accessible of places. Before the war, a dozen different steamship companies belonging to various nationalities—British, German, Austrian and Italian—conveyed passengers to that sunny land. Naturally, during the four years of international conflict, part of the services was suspended ; but since the end of 1920 many of the calls have been resumed, while new ones have been added. One has again a wide choice of partly sea-routes, such as those provided by the long-established P. and O. Line, which runs a weekly service—as regularly and punctually as ever—(each Friday) to Port Said, calling *en route* at Marseilles, and occupying seven days overland, or twelve days by sea from London ; the Orient Line, having interchangeable courtesies with the P. and O. Company, which runs a fortnightly service from London, calling at Toulon and Naples, and occasionally at Gibraltar ; the Bibby Line, which conducts a fortnightly service from Liverpool, and occasionally from London, to Port Said, calling *en route* at Marseilles, and carrying first-class passengers only ; the Henderson and the Anchor Lines, the vessels of both sailing from Liverpool for Port Said on their way to India, and carrying one class—first—only ; the City Line ; the Prince Line ; and the Union-Castle Line.

In regard to foreign lines, there is likewise an excellent choice of routes. The French Messageries Maritimes, starting from Marseilles, take first- and second-class passengers to Port Said or Alexandria ; the Italian Line Trieste–Lloyd takes passengers from Trieste or Brindisi, and lands them at Alexandria ; while another Italian line, the Società de Servizzi Maritimi, starting from Naples or Genoa, will take passengers to Alexandria. One ought not to forget to mention the well-conducted and very comfortable service from Constantinople offered by the Khedivial Mail Line, whose vessels also call at the Pyrreus, Smyrna and Mitilini on their way to Port Said and Alexandria ; while there are a number of Greek companies running vessels between the Pyrreus and Egyptian ports. The latter, however, cannot be recommended to fastidious British travellers, since the selected hours of meals, the general lack of cleanliness of the boats, and the occasional incivility of the native officials render Hellenic services the least desirable of any.

To a large extent Egyptian shipping—outside the great European lines—is in the hands of Greeks, whose methods are by no means to the liking of business men. Deprived of the influence of any influential British official in the Shipping Department of the Ministry, it is feared that, under new control, there may be a disposition to revert to high charges such as prevailed in 1913, when, owing to the " ring " formed between the less reputable but numerically important steamship companies, Lord Kitchener, then Agent at Cairo, threatened to invest some of the Government funds in the purchase of ships for the carriage of railway stores and general goods. The Egyptian freight-market is a peculiar one, and, on

DATE PALMS.

THE BENEFICIAL RESULT OF IRRIGATION.

THE REAL DESERT.

account of its relative smallness, as compared with the other freight markets of the world, it is always the first to be affected by any fluctuation that takes place. These and other matters assume importance at the present time when everything in Egypt, commercial and industrial, as well as political and financial, is in the " melting-pot " ; the future trend of commercial affairs will—like those political—have to be watched with particular care by those interested.

CHAPTER XIX

ATHLETICS FORMERLY A FEATURE OF EGYPTIAN LIFE—INTRODUCED BY GREEKS—LOVE OF SPORT WANING—HORSE-RACING ALONE POPULAR —BRITISH PARTICIPATION—ALEXANDRIA AND CAIRO COURSES— NOTABLE RIDERS—HELIOPOLIS COURSE—GIZERA SPORTING CLUB— EXCLUSIVENESS IN MEMBERSHIP—EGYPTIANS NOT WELCOME— PECULIARITIES OF BRITISH MEMBERSHIP—JOCKEY CLUB OF EGYPT —MEETING FIXTURES.

A MARKED feature of ancient Egyptian life was the fondness displayed by all classes for athletic games. Participants were much encouraged and supported by the example set by the Greeks, who brought athleticism to a high standard of development, displaying in this characteristic almost as close an affinity with the Egyptians as in their remarkable though distinctive art. The not infrequent occurrence of Ægean sporting objects in the tombs of the Egyptian kings enables one to approximately identify the era of civilisation to which they belonged. The Greeks seem to have introduced the holding of athletic games wherever they penetrated, and many have survived to this day. Foot-racing, wrestling, boxing and chariot-racing soon became favourite pastimes of the Egyptians. Princes of the blood and nobles of the court took part in open contests, carried out before the common multitude, who applauded or withheld their applause according to the skill displayed by and the popularity of the different competitors. As was the case in Greece itself, contests were often held in close proximity to the shrine of some favourite deity, to whom victory at the tournament was dedicated.

Sport—Old and New

Love of sport among the modern Egyptians is somewhat less noticeable, if we except horse-racing, which, affording opportunity for gambling, finds no lack of votaries. The best spirit of sport is still found represented by the European—that is to say the British—element.

The extent of patronage bestowed upon the sport of racing by native sportsmen and the general public is dependent more or less upon the economic prosperity of the country ; in other words, the failure or success of the cotton-growing season controls the situation. When prices are high and everyone has money to spend, the race-course, which is located at Gizera, in the neighbourhood of Cairo, is well attended during its two somewhat lengthy seasons ; under less prosperous conditions the attendance is more or less confined to the officials, the military and the superior class of residents, the *fellahin* and trading classes being too impecunious or otherwise occupied to devote much attention to this form of amusement. The winter season dates from October until April, the first few days of the Christian New Year, as is the case in the Sudan, witnessing the holding of the more important fixtures. The summer season follows closely on the heels of the winter season, the first meeting, held at Alexandria, taking place during the week-end following the last race held in Cairo.

During the extended period that the British and Australian troops were quartered in Egypt there was no lack of attendance at the meetings. In fact, the many race-gatherings formed the principal source of amusement provided for our fighting forces. The large proportion of cavalry among both British and Australian

troops conduced materially to the entries recorded, as well as to the swelling of the *pari-mutuel* receipts of the Sports Clubs. It was known, for instance, that the Alexandria Club netted a sum of £E120,000 during the six inclusive years (1914–19), when so many troops were quartered on the Nile. Owing to the large profits then made, the club was enabled to purchase the land upon which its building stands.

Some excellent horseflesh has been imported from time to time into Egypt; among the principal British owners has been Captain Tanner, who has always maintained a stable of thoroughbreds, while among notable jockeys riding the Alexandria course have been Marsh, who heads the list of winning jockeys, Sharpe and Bellhouse.

A keen rivalry exists between Alexandria and Cairo in racing matters as in others relating to many enterprises; but, on the whole, the seaside town has the better of the meetings. During the five months' season of 1921 (comprising forty-three big race-days) the Alexandria Club made a profit of £E20,000. Large fields were the rule, the entries being so numerous that upon occasions it was found necessary to divide up the races, as many as eight competitive events taking place during the course of one afternoon.

Much remains to be done to place horse-racing in Egypt upon a satisfactory footing, that is to say from the spectator's point of view. The only good track in use is that located at Heliopolis, where, owing to the favourable site chosen, several thousands of spectators can witness a race from start to finish without either difficulty or crowding. This course is likewise free from

the disadvantages attending the many sharp turns which distinguish the courses at Gizera and Alexandria.

Before the most recent political transformation in Egypt took place, it had been practically decided to establish new race-courses ; this was to have been effected largely with the aid of British capital and management ; but it is now doubtful whether this enterprise will ever be undertaken—at least by the original *entrepreneurs*. The Egyptians themselves are not at heart much interested in racing from a purely sporting point of view ; without the impetus afforded by the British spirit, born of genuine love for animals and keen emulation in skill, there appears very little probability of the meetings being continued ; certainly not upon their customary scale.

The Gizera Sporting Club, of which Captain D. P. Hope-Johnstone has, for some years, been the very popular and enterprising secretary, is reached in about ten minutes by carriage from either the Continental or Shepheard's Hotel in Cairo. While its hospitable doors have always been open to visitors non-resident in the capital, the sole requisite for entrance having been a personal introduction from a member, exception has been taken—not without some reason—to the policy which tends to bring about the exclusion of Egyptians from any active participation in the management of the sports ; neither have they been encouraged to become members of the Club, except in certain cases. None the less, the institution was primarily established partly with their assistance, and certainly with the aid of their monetary contributions.

Exclusiveness of this kind is a form of ill-breeding—

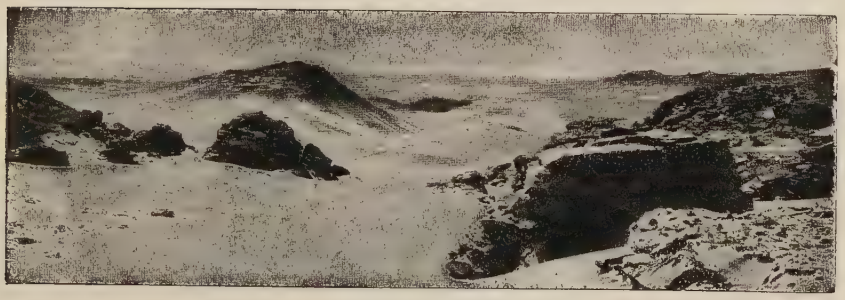
unfortunately characteristic of some Englishmen, and of still more Englishwomen—upon which the Egyptians are peculiarly, and most naturally, sensitive. Want of consideration for the feelings of the native population, particularly of the better classes, permanently inhabiting the countries in which British men and women but temporarily reside, has frequently proved one of the greatest drawbacks to the gaining of popularity or friendship, even where other of our national virtues are generously recognised. It was once said by George Eliot that British selfishness is so robust and many-clutching that, well encouraged, it easily devours all sustenance away from our poor little scruples.

No actual rule as to the exclusion of Egyptians from the Sporting Club exists ; but the natives are not welcomed, and, doubtless finding themselves ordinarily *de trop*, they have gradually withdrawn ; it was usually difficult to find native members of the Gizera Sporting Club attending the premises except for a brief time, or to make an occasional social call upon another member. What will happen to the establishment under the new conditions forms an interesting problem.

On the other hand, the Club is largely frequented by British officials and inhabitants of the foreign residential quarter. To this centre many of the British community have been attracted more and more during the past few years ; as is their habit, they indulge freely, and somewhat exclusively, in their favourite games of golf, polo and tennis, but there are few notable players to be found among them.

The Gizera race-course is formed of grass, and, in size, is one and a quarter miles round ; but, like that at

"A LAND OF ROCK AND STONE."



A DESOLATE SPOT.

ON THE CONFINES.

IN THE ROCK HILLS.

A SHADELESS TRACK.

Alexandria, it presents some very sharp turns. During the season (October to April) race-meetings are held upon every alternate Saturday.

There are three full-sized boarded polo-grounds (at that of the Gizera Sporting Club the Prince of Wales played during his brief visit to Cairo in June 1922), an eighteen-hole golf-course, and twenty-five hard tennis-courts, in addition to a number of well-kept bowling-greens, croquet-lawns, squash-racquet courts, etc.

The Heliopolis Racing Club, of which Mr. A. P. Friend is the manager, has been in existence for about twelve years. Here the course is formed entirely of sand, screened and well rolled, offering an excellent surface and good going. In length it measures one and a half miles round.

All races are run under the rules of the Jockey Club of Egypt, the prizes offered varying in value from £E100 minimum to £E500 maximum. The fixtures include contests between thoroughbreds, country-breds and Arabs. The meetings are held upon six days of the month, that is to say upon every Sunday and every other Saturday. The club grounds comprise spacious enclosures and stands; there is also a reserved stand, for which a moderate price per seat is fixed. Stalls and boxes to accommodate eighty horses are provided, while around the course there are training stables for two hundred and fifty horses.

CONCLUSION

EGYPTIAN history during the years of the European War, and since, proved as remarkable politically as economically. Having enjoyed, since 1883, when the dual control was abolished, the position of a semi-independent tributary State of the Ottoman Empire, although militarily occupied by the British, Egypt in 1914 was at one stroke of the diplomatic pen released from Turkish influence, which had then endured for close upon four hundred years (since 1517).

The change of system in Egypt, brought about by the emancipation of that country from British or other foreign control, has yet to be definitely decided by the Commission and Sub-Commissions that have been engaged for several months past in framing the new constitution. At the time that this volume went to press, the elaboration of the electoral law had not been nearly concluded. The constitutional system of Egypt up to March 1922 had been founded on the law of May 1, 1883, framed under the auspices of the late Lord Dufferin, and promulgated by the Khedive Tewfik Pasha ; it had created a number of representative institutions, including a Legislative Council, a General Assembly and Provincial Councils. The Legislative Council, consisting of thirty members, was a consultative body, fourteen of its members being nominated by the Government. One meeting annually was held, namely, on November 15th, the

ENTERING THE VILLAGE OF KARNAK

Council continuing in session until the end of the following May, although it could be summoned by decree at any time to hold extraordinary meetings. The functions of the Council were to examine the budget and all proposed administrative measures; but it could not initiate legislation, and the Government was not compelled to act upon its advice. Those of its members who resided in Cairo received an allowance of £E100 a year for "carriage expenses," and those who came from provincial towns were in receipt of allowances varying from £E285 to £E316 a year for residential expenses in Cairo.

The General, or National, Assembly consisted of the members of the Legislative Council, with the addition of the six Ministers and forty-six members popularly elected. This body had no legislative functions, but no new direct personal or land-tax could be imposed and no public loan could be contracted without its consent. It was bound to be summoned at least once in two years, and during its sittings the members received an allowance of £E1 a day, with railway expenses. The ultimate legislative authority was with the Khedive and the Council of Ministers.

The most conspicuous occasion on which the National Assembly exercised their rights was in the year 1910, when a proposal was laid before them for the extension of the one hundred years' Suez Canal concession (which does not, however, expire until 1968). The date to which it was proposed to extend the concession was 2008. Although at first a great deal of fractious opposition was manifested, it was soon discovered that a monetary *douceur*, if offered in the proper way, would

meet with consideration ; and eventually, in return for the extension of the concession to the period mentioned, the Suez Canal Company agreed to pay a large sum of money, and the Khedive and his Ministers unanimously recommended that the offer should be accepted. When the question came to be considered by the National Assembly, however, with one exception, the members voted against the granting of the extension. Their action was severely criticised at the time as being " short-sighted and unstatesmanlike."

If this was the policy pursued in those days, when Great Britain still had the upper hand in Egypt, what may be looked for under the new régime? Will British claims meet with no more consideration (or perhaps with even less) than those of other nations? In this connection it may not be out of place to recall the statement made in the House of Commons on June 13, 1910, by Sir Edward Grey (now Viscount Grey of Falloden). Speaking upon the question of Egypt's new constitution then being considered—thanks to the conciliatory policy of Great Britain—Lord Grey said :—

> You cannot use the Legislative Council or the General Assembly to improve the Government of Egypt if they are to become, as they have lately shown a tendency to become, the mere instruments of what is called " *The national movement against the British occupation.*"

There are many striking differences between the Egyptian constitution as framed in 1813 and the electoral law as now being considered, and likely to be adopted, under Egypt's political emancipation. It has now been practically decided that there shall be two Houses, a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies, which will replace

the Legislative Council and the National Assembly. In the Chamber of Deputies there will be one deputy to each 75,000 inhabitants. Voters must be twenty years of age and upwards, and all candidates for election must pay the minimum land-tax, the amount of which has still to be decided. All holders of medical, legal and similar diplomas will be exempt from the land-tax qualification, provided they hold a diploma five years' old. Under the old law, the land-tax qualification was £E50 annually, and those holding diplomas were exempted if they paid £E20 annually. The result of this new regulation (should the Sub-Commission's recommendations be adopted) will be to create 175 elected deputies. To their number would be added the nominated members, thus swelling the Chamber to about double the size of the Legislative Assembly. It is understood that the Senate will be entirely nominated.

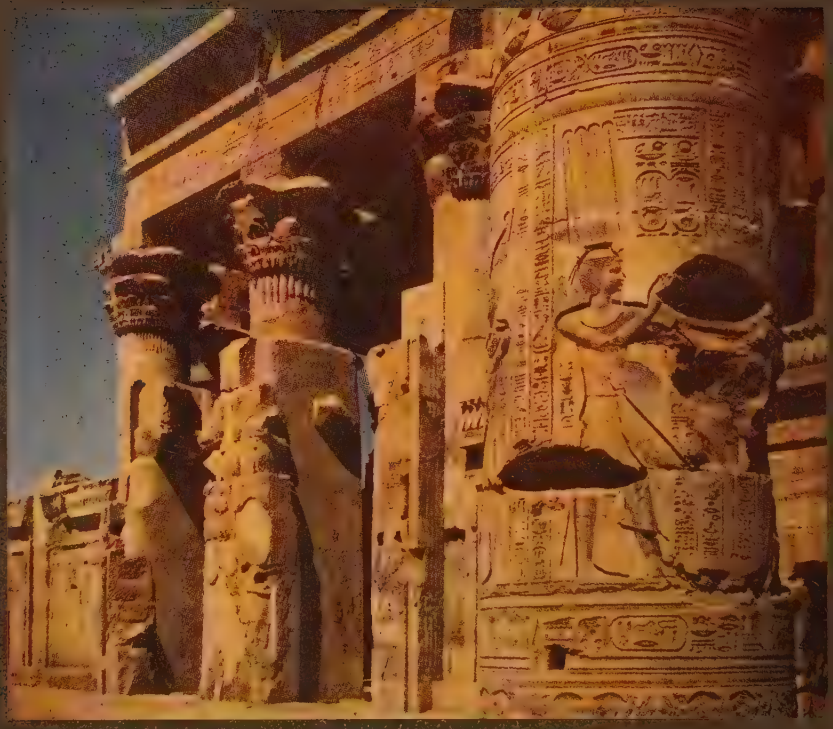
That a considerable amount of friction is likely to occur between the two Houses of the people seems clear from the fact that a proportion of Egypt's politicians have stubbornly refrained from participating in the work of framing the new constitution. It is contended that no constitution can be valid unless framed by the National Assembly ; but authoritative views to the contrary are expressed, many European and non-European countries —among them Italy, Portugal, Turkey and Japan— being cited as instances wherein the Charter of Constitution had been obtained direct from the Sovereign.

Here attention may be called to the fact that in Egypt's modern history her organic laws, from the time of the first introduction of ministerial government to the creation of the Legislative Assembly in 1913 (above referred to),

had come direct from the Sovereign, with the solitary exception of the Organic Law of 1882 (during the Arabi rebellion), when there was a revolution against the throne. As far as could be gathered when these pages went to press, the new organic electoral laws of Egypt cannot possibly be submitted to the National Assembly, or—if accepted by that body—promulgated before the end of the current year (1922), nor can elections to confirm or to reject them be held before March 1923.

Those members of the Egyptian Commission who have displayed so truculent and irreconcilable an attitude regarding the future of the Sudan should have remembered that there is a limit to the good-nature and forbearance of the British Government, even if, seemingly, there is insufficient strength of control by their own administration. If necessary, repressive measures would have to be applied against any act of political aggression upon the part of the Commission, and the Egyptians may lose something, if not all, of what they have gained, thus sacrificing the substance for the shadow. No difficult problem of administration will be served by adopting a threatening or a hostile attitude in the matter; and although the difficulties of Great Britain might be thereby increased, the prospects of complete freedom for Egypt itself would be definitely shattered.

Is it to be supposed for a single moment that the costly campaign of October 1884 to January 1885, that of October 1895 to September 1898, securing the difficult but decided reconquest of the Sudan—a country long left derelict—are to count for nothing, and that this valuable province, after twenty years of sound, wholesome govern-



MAIN ENTRANCE TO THE TEMPLE OF KOM OMBO

ment, under just and equitable British rule, could ever again be permitted to revert to Egypt, which, over a long course of years, showed its utter incapacity to govern there? From the first days in 1820 of Ismail's armed expedition to the Sudan—where he met a just reward for his inhuman treatment of the inoffensive natives by a painful death—to the final overthrow of Ottoman dominance by the taking of Khartoum and the death of the heroic Gordon in January 1885, nothing but what was discreditable, and everything that was demoralising, characterised Egyptian rule in the Sudan.

Apart from the solemn assurance given to the Sudanese people by the late Lord Kitchener—addressing them at Omdurman on that memorable day of January 5, 1899, in the following words: "No attempt shall ever be made to govern your country from Cairo; still less from London"—the mere suggestion that a people, long emancipated from a rule that had been tried over a period of sixty years and been found wanting, should be made again subject to a similar administration is unthinkable.

The Egyptians must renounce for ever all thought of regaining even partial political control of the Sudan. They have still to prove to the world that they are capable of governing themselves—and they are far from having done that. The politicians have still to show that they recognise the seriousness of the responsibilities that they have so lightly assumed—the burden of directing the intricate affairs of their country without the aid of foreign advice and supervision.

Not that from shrewd and patriotic as well as just-minded statesmen like Sarwat Pasha trouble over the future

of the Sudan is likely to arise ; from firebrands of the Zaghlul type, however, and his truculent adherents Atif Barakat Bey, Amin Ezz-el-Arah Effendi, Gaafar Fashry Bey, Fathalla Barakat Pasha, Mustafa-el-Nabas Bey, Simidt Hanna Bey, and William Wakram Obeid Effendi, all of whom have already given great trouble to British authority, the real danger to the peace of Egypt is to be apprehended. Judging by recent occurrences, these and other agitators may again be relied upon to place themselves in opposition, this time, however, to their own Government. Most of these troublesome individuals were arrested and imprisoned at the end of 1921 by Lord Allenby, while, at the same time, Zaghlul was quietly shipped off to Suez, thence to Ceylon, and finally to the Seychelles and Gibraltar.

Views expressed by the Sudanese themselves upon the newly-created Egyptian situation have been far from optimistic. Shrewd analytical observers—and the Moslem inhabitants of the Sudan are in no way lacking in powers of perception—believe that as soon as Egypt has attained full self-government and complete independence of foreign control the Government is going to set itself up in hostility against that of Great Britain. This is the opinion privately held by a good many individuals on this side ; but they have lacked the moral courage to express it. The fact that there is nothing in Great Britain's past history to warrant any fear of aggression against Egypt, more than hinted at by agitators of the Zaghlul type, counts for nothing.

In the Sudan, the benefits attaching to British rule are too well recognised to allow of any doubt regarding the kind of reception accorded to the proposals put

forward in the new Cairo Convention, placing Sudan completely under the domination of Egypt. To exchange a proved administration, under which the Sudan for over twenty years had enjoyed financial, physical, intellectual and moral advantages, for one which has not been proved to be either strong or stable, good or beneficial, would be a step so retrograde and so politically suicidal that no intelligent people, such as the Sudanese, would for a moment entertain it.

In Egypt, as in most countries other than those of Central Europe, the termination of the long war was greeted with pæans of triumph and fervent expressions of rejoicing, accompanied by military or civic processions in honour of the victory gained by our men in Palestine. The great Allenby had come like a second Amrú to Al-Kahirak, and amid the acclamations of the people was celebrated the military glory of his nation. In times long past the streets of Babylon-on-the-Nile had re-echoed to other such shouts of triumph, and, no doubt, to similar signs of celebration upon the home-coming of their victorious warriors.

Thoughts involuntarily turned back to the great Caliph Omar, who founded the city of Cairo upon the field of his triumph in A.D. 640 ; to the Fatimite chief, Khalif Muizz, who conquered Egypt in A.D. 969 ; to the march of the great Napoléon in 1798, and the battle of the Pyramids, to his forced retirement, three years afterwards, following the assassination of his favourite General Kléber and the capitulation of the French garrison. Rebuilt by the Saracens, burnt by the Crusaders, ruined by earthquakes, and finally redeemed by the English, Cairo had known many strange vicissitudes ;

but never had its pride been greater nor its peoples more seemingly glad when welcoming the return of the brilliant soldier and his gallant men, who, by their heroic efforts, had for ever rescued Palestine from the hands of the hated and barbarous Turk.

Four hundred years, almost to the month, had come and gone since the Holy Land—sacred alike to Christian and to Jew—was conquered by Selim I. History has related with particular minuteness the kind of rule that he and his successors maintained over the conquered land and its people. Now had the "Great Civilising Power" of the world come to Palestine, as it had come one hundred years before to Egypt, all roads conducting from the eastern frontier being thus rendered for ever safe. Many great soldiers before Allenby had helped to preserve them from the trespass of an enemy. The dead but unforgotten Kitchener, the distinguished Grenfell, Maxwell, and the ever-watchful Wingate, among others, had worked the miracle that thus saved the gates of Egypt from intrusion.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ALEXANDRIA
Abuqir
Rosetta
Baltim
L. Borollos
Damietta
Fua
Sidi Salem
Desuq
Biahah
Belkas
Menzala
Amria
Damanhur
Port Said
Mehalla el Keb.
Talcha
Dekernes
Ifai el Barud
Mansura
Tanta
Sinbellawein
Kafr Saqr
Wadi Natrun
Kirfa
Shebin el Kom
Faqus
el Baramus
Bir Hooker
Menuf
Zagazig
Ismailia
Suriani
Benha
Belbeis
Makarius
Ashmun
Virgins Tree
Heliopolis
30°
El Marg
Embaba
Gizeh
CAIRO
SPHINX
Gizeh Pyr.
Abusir Pyr.
Gebel el Qatrani
Badrashein
Helwan
Suez
Qasr el Sagha
MEMPHIS
Birket el-Karun
Dima
Ayat
Sennures
Meidum
Abuksha
Arsina
Medinet el Fayyum
El Wasta
29°
Beni Suef
Bajud
(Biheh)
Beba
Fashn
Maghagha
Beni Mazar
Kynopolis
Samalut
W. Tarfa
Minieh (Minia)
ARABIAN DESERT
RED SEA
SUEZ C.
NILE RIVER

Keneh (Qena)
Naga Hamadi
Dendara
Kuft
Kus
26°
El-Charge
THEBES
KARNAK
Armant
Luxor
El Ideisat
El Deir
El Hella
Esneh
El-Kab
Edfú
W. Shaagh
25°
El Redesia Bahari
El Ramadi Bahari
Silwa Barbari
W. Shait
Aqlia
Ombos
Darawi (Darau)
24°
Elephantine 1. Cataract
Assuan (Aswân)
PHILAE
Shellal
Dabud
Dehmit
Qirtas
Taifa
W. Damkhid
Kalabsha
Dendur
Abu Hor
23°
Husein
Dakka
Uffedunia
Kurta
NILE
Seyala
Wadi Allaqi
T. Aniba
Tumas
T. Amada
T.
Toski 1889
Derr
Sebua
Ibrim
Singari
Ballana
Armena
Adendan
T. Serra
Wadi Halfa
2. Cataract
32°
33°
N
W
E
S
DESERT
Temple
Pyramids
Railways
Canals
50 Miles
100 Km
50 G.M

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